

OCT. — NOV.

6d.

STEAD'S REVIEW OF REVIEWS

THE WAR REVIEWED.

By HENRY STEAD.

GEORGE BERNARD SHAW
ON THE SITUATION.

THE MENACE FROM THE AIR.

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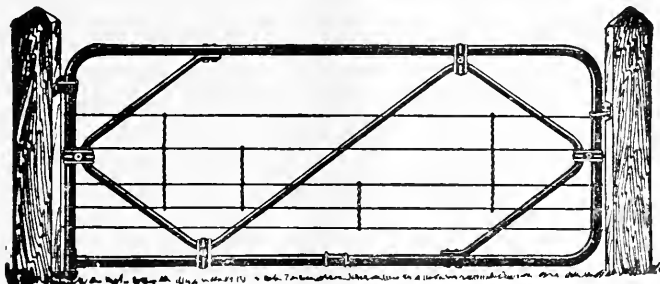


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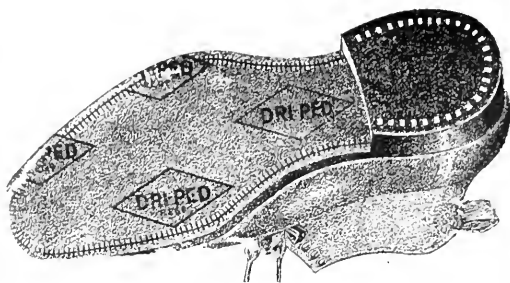
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STEAD'S REVIEW for August and for September-October was completely SOLD OUT. Make sure that you get future numbers by ordering AT ONCE in advance.

THIS month again the magazine is filled with articles dealing with the war. This so dominates the position that there is little interest in other matters. Next month STEAD'S REVIEW will be ready about the 9th of November. It will contain many articles of special value. Most people have heard of Norman Angell, and his wonderful book, "The Great Illusion," but few have read it. A careful summary of it will appear in the November-December number. New Things in War will be the subject of a special article of peculiar interest. Another unique article will tell what it must be like in a great German town during war time.

MR. STEAD, who has travelled throughout the whole of Europe, and knows much about the diplomatic relations between the Great Powers, will write on the International aspect of the struggle. What we have bought from Germany and what we might get elsewhere, will be dealt with, but not in dry statistics and rows of figures. Diagrams and description will make it intelligible to every reader.

THE magazines from home are full of interesting articles throwing many side-lights on the terrible fighting. STEAD'S REVIEW will give selections from them, seeking to present its readers with facts and incidents they would otherwise miss. The popular "Catechism" will be continued.

OWING to the increased cost of carriage, insurance, paper, and the many other things connected with the production of a magazine, it has been found necessary to increase the price of all sixpenny magazines to sevenpence.

THIS number of STEAD'S REVIEW is, however, being sold throughout Australasia at sixpence. No one should have to pay more for it. Next month, though, we shall probably have to follow our contemporaries, and increase the price to sevenpence. This will only be a temporary necessity, consequently none of our subscribers need be troubled; the REVIEW will continue to reach them by post each month as usual without any further charge. In fact, the subscription will not be raised at all, nor will new subscribers be charged more than the usual 6/- per annum in the Commonwealth, and 6 6 in New Zealand.

AS mentioned above, the August and September-October numbers of STEAD'S REVIEW were completely sold out, many people being unable to secure copies. It is advisable for readers to make certain that they do not miss the magazine, by ordering it *at once in advance*. Subscriptions should be sent to the Manager, STEAD'S REVIEW, at T. and G. Building, Melbourne, or at Ocean House, Moore Street, Sydney.

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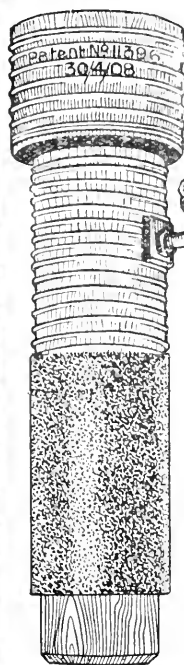


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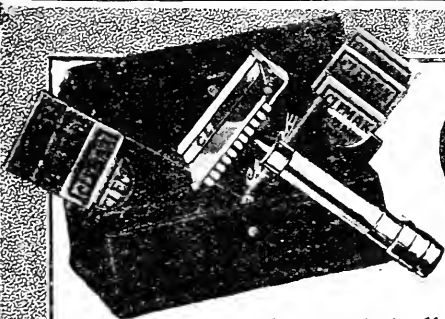
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If you can not, then your power of concentration is bad. It is a proper thing to bear in mind the great struggle for right and liberty which our people and our friends are putting up, but the work of the world must go on, and the best help those who stay at home can offer is to do the day's work to the best of their ability. We must keep the wheels going round.

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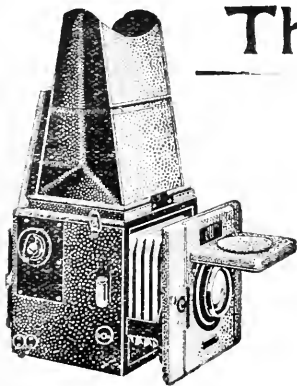
EDITED BY HENRY STEAD.

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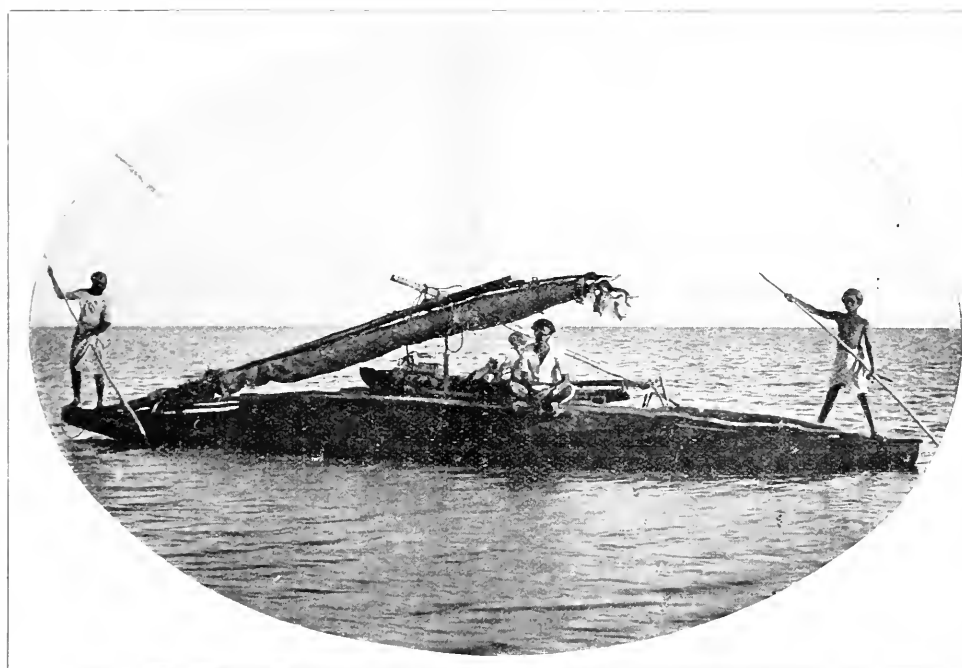
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PRO PATRIA.

Punch, the premier humorous journal of the world, never fails to rise to the occasion. Taylor's great lines when Lincoln died still linger in the memory, but another editor in another century has produced verses which will equally ring through the Empire. Sir Owen Seaman, in the issue of August 12, sings:—

England, in this great fight to which you go
Because, where Honour calls you, go you
must,
Be glad, whatever comes, at least to know
You have your quarrel just.

Peace was your care; before the nations' bar
Her cause you pleaded and her ends you
sought;
But not for her sake, being what you are,
Could you be bribed and bought.

Others may spurn the pledge of land to land,
May with the brute sword stain a gallant
past;
But by the seal to which you set your hand,
Thank God, you still hold fast!

Forth, then, to front that peril of the deep
With smiling lips and in your eyes the
light,
Stedfast and confident, of those who keep
Their storied scutcheon bright.

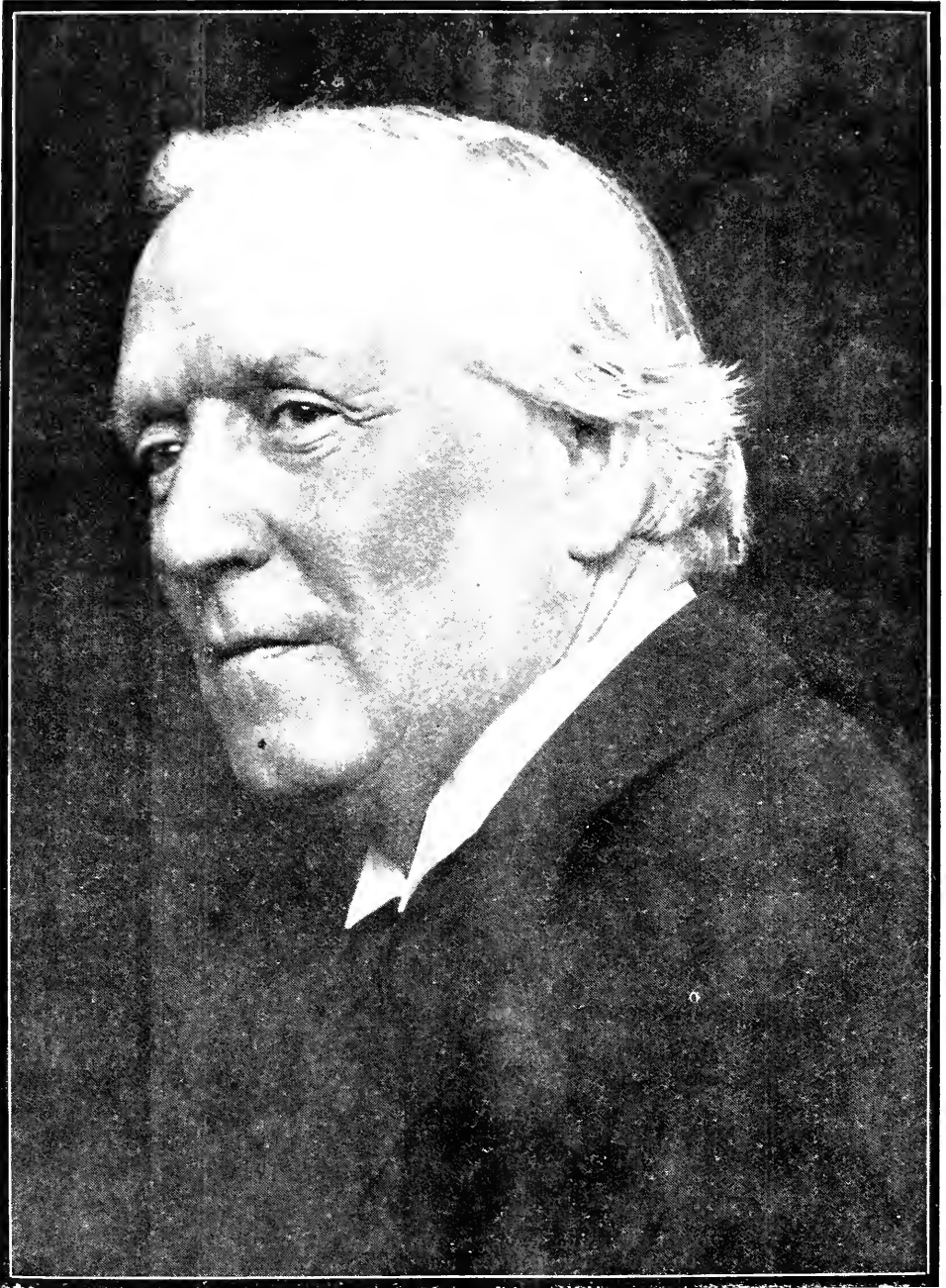
And we, whose burden is to watch and
wait—
High-hearted ever, strong in faith and
prayer,
We ask what offering we may consecrate,
What humble service share?

To steel our souls against the lust of ease;
To find our welfare in the general good;
To hold together, merging all degrees
In one wild brotherhood;—

To teach that he who saves himself is lost;
To bear in silence though our hearts may
bleed;
To spend ourselves, and never count the
cost,
For others' greater need:—

To go our quiet ways, subdued and sane;
To hush all vulgar clamour of the street;
With level calm to face alike the strain
Of triumph or defeat:—

This be our part, for so we serve you best,
So best confirm their prowess and their
pride,
Your warrior sons, to whom in this high test
Our fortunes we confide.



THE MAN WHO CONTROLS GREAT BRITAIN'S POLICY.

All men, irrespective of party, will pay homage to the man, above all others, whose keen foresight, cool judgment, and level-headedness contributed to enable us to face the blows of Fate with calm courage. Whatever the issue, the British people will never forget the services of the British Prime Minister, the leader of a great democratic party, who proved himself the greatest of all War Ministers the nation has ever honoured.

(Archibald Ward, in the "Fortnightly.")

STEAD'S REVIEW

OF REVIEWS.

EDITED BY

HENRY STEAD.

PROGRESS OF THE WAR.

OCTOBER 14, 1914.

On the Marne and Aisne.

Just as we went to press last month the welcome news of the German check in France had come to hand. Since this exploit the Allies have not achieved any very remarkable success, and, at the moment of writing, the enemy still holds the Aisne line strongly. The German troops retreated here after the battle of the Marne, and although at the time it looked as if they were being driven headlong backwards, subsequent events proved that they must have rallied very quickly. In all probability there was never any question of a real rout, the foe merely retiring to positions already prepared, where he still holds out. Obviously the central Teuton army rushed forward too impetuously, the southern army from Alsace could not keep pace with it, and the northern army was weakened to repel the Russian raid into East Prussia. Unsupported, the centre, once really checked, could do nothing but fall back into line with the rest of the Kaiser's forces. The brilliant achievements of the Russians in Galicia demanded the despatch of more and ever more troops from the western frontier to reinforce the Austrians. This is no doubt the principal reason why the Germans have made no very desperate attempt to again advance on Paris.

What We Are Not Told.

Everyone naturally hoped that, as the entire French army—plus some 150,000 troops from Algeria, the entire British expeditionary force, and the Indian troops—was, thanks to the Russians, opposed to only half the German army, a decisive victory must ere long be chronicled. We were told regularly every day that the turning movement which was to envelop the enemy's right was succeeding, and would, we anticipated, force the entire German force to retreat, as its communications through Belgium would be in imminent danger. This great turning movement has evidently not eventuated. The Allies have steadily pushed their forces to the north, but the Germans have apparently always been able to oppose force by force, and the line of battle has in consequence stretched out almost to the English Channel. We, as usual, hear nothing of German successes, but must deduce them from references which appear in later cables to events which have never previously been chronicled, and can also arrive at some knowledge of the actual position by the actions of the Germans in the theatre of war. An official message from Paris, published here on October 10th, for instance, refers to the success of the Allies in re-taking the greater part of the positions between

the Somme and the Oise, which we had previously "been obliged to abandon." A *Times* telegram refers to a battle at Arras, where, although the Allies held their own during the first day, and the Germans "ran like rabbits," later, despite the annihilation of no fewer than "five German regiments," the Germans compelled the evacuation of the town, swept round it, and then again, meeting the Allies strongly reinforced, were compelled to fall back. If the Germans are strong enough to force the Allies to retire from Arras, it is pretty clear that they will re-take Lille, 45 miles north-east. It certainly looks as if the chance of cutting through to the foe's communications had been lost. It can only now be done by landing troops at Ostend, and before these lines are read we expect the Germans will have taken that seaport.

The Fall of Antwerp.

The failure of the attempt is perhaps more clearly proved by the vigorous assault on Antwerp. Had the St. Quentin, Mauberge, Liège line of retreat been at all seriously endangered, the Germans would scarcely have risked attacking Antwerp in great force. If their army in France had to retire precipitately, the investing force at Antwerp would have been left "in the air," and its hasty retreat meeting that of the flying army from France would have made confusion worse confounded. If the German commanders thought that they could spare enough men to reduce Antwerp it can only mean that they were confident of their ability to hold the Allies in check in France without sending every available man to the trenches. We are assured that the fall of the city will not "materially affect the campaign," just as we were assured that the fall of Brussels did not, and the possible fall of Paris would not. At

the same time, the capture of a fortress stated to be impregnable, the securing of the base of the Belgian army, the occupation of the largest and most important shipping centre in the old world, together with the collection of a huge indemnity may be considered by the Germans sufficient compensation for the thousands who fell in the assault. Part of the original German plan was said to be the capture of Antwerp and the overrunning of Belgium to the North Sea. It looks as if the Germans still proposed to carry out this programme.

Has Verdun Fallen?

The Germans appear to have made good their footing on the Meuse, between Verdun and Toul, at St. Mihiel, one of the six forts which defend the river connecting the two great fortresses. Obviously the enemy will be doing their best to reduce other forts as well, even Verdun itself. They would thus secure a quick line of retreat to Metz for the armies on the Aisne. After the capture of Liège, Namur, Mauberge and Antwerp, who dare say that even Verdun is safe? The terrible howitzers of the Germans have clearly made the holding of forts, no matter how strong, an impossibility. The only hope is to meet the Germans in the field; to await them behind the most powerful defences is evidently to court defeat. Unfortunately the defence of France is based upon a series of great fortresses. When, if ever, the Allies come to invest places like Metz and Strassburg, it is practically certain that they will find these huge howitzers in place, hopelessly outranging any ordnance they can bear to bring against them. These wonderful guns cause a feeling of great uneasiness, for, if we are so hopelessly outclassed on land, will we be after all so immensely superior on sea as we have confidently believed?

All Depends on Russia.

Russia has already saved Paris, and it is to the Tsar we must look to ultimately rescue Belgium and crush Germany. The western theatre of war has naturally a greater personal attraction for us, as our men are fighting there, but it is on the eastern frontier where the overlordship of Europe is really being settled. Events have shown that France alone, with what help Britain could give her—and for many weeks this was, after all, inconsiderable—would have stood no chance whatever against the entire might of Germany. The Russian menace kept many German army corps on the eastern frontier, and General Rennekampf's raid to Königsberg stopped the irresistible German rush to Paris. It is particularly necessary to know what is really going on in East Prussia, Poland and Galicia. In studying the position we must always bear in mind that all information, that contained in even the official telegrams from London, originates in Russia. We know how, early in the war, the cables from official sources in Brussels, relayed to us from London, were unduly optimistic, not to say misleading. We ought not to accept everything which reaches us about the Russian campaign without some reservations. The main accounts of the great battles are undoubtedly true, and the reports of Russian successes are probably not much overdrawn, but we cannot believe it possible that the particulars of slain, wounded and captured Austrians and Germans given the day after the battle can be at all accurate; that must merely be guesswork.

In East Prussia

It is also incredible that the Russians, immensely numerous though they be, can succeed so absolutely against the Germans as to suffer no reverses at all. We must remember that these are the

troops the French have been fighting against without by any means always having the best of it. As we hear of no reverses of any kind, we must assume that only successes are being reported. That we cannot quarrel with, though it leaves an uneasy feeling providing these set backs do not really matter. Not having any direct information about them, we have to deduce a good deal, and perhaps we are inclined to read rather too much in between the lines. For instance, although the Russians did admit one reverse in East Prussia, we now know that this must have been very severe, because when it occurred the Tsar's soldiers were investing Königsburg, and the next definite news we hear from that part is that the Germans are seventy miles into Russia, 170 miles east of Königsburg! General Rennekampf achieved his object by his advance into East Prussia—the relief of the pressure on the Allies in France—but he must have been severely harried to retire so far as he did. He is advancing again, and successfully, but, owing to the lack of railways from the Prussian frontier into Russia, the bad roads, and the invulnerability of Russia herself, it is very improbable that the German invasion was serious, or that it was a great force which General Rennekampf has hurled back. The enemy will probably hold East Prussia, because a large Russian army will have to be detailed to prevent a German attack on the lines of communication through Poland. The German force in East Prussia need not be very large, as, having command of the Baltic, the Germans can always send in reinforcements when these are wanted.

To Berlin, via Bohemia.

Early in the war we had news of a Russian advance in force on Posen and Breslau, but that seemed quite impos-

sible at that time, for the Russians mobilise slowly. The most recent cables indicate that, not only are the Russians not knocking at the Prussian frontier forts, but the German forces are actually in possession of much of Poland, are, indeed, not very far from Warsaw. We have always held it improbable that the Russians would march to Berlin via Posen and Breslau. They are far more likely to select the route through Bohemia and Saxony. It is the longest way round, but it will certainly prove the shortest way there. The Russian frontier fortresses are exceedingly powerful; Saxony is undefended. The Tsar's forces would have a hearty reception in Bohemia, for the Czechs would hail them as deliverers. This branch of the Slav race is settled all the way from Bohemia itself to the Carpathians, so that in marching through from Galicia the Russians would be traversing friendly country. If this assumption be true, the campaign in Galicia is the most important of all. Here at any rate we have good news, although we hardly dare believe the immense figures cabled us of Austrian losses. Had these been so tremendous (nearly five hundred thousand) the Austrian army could hardly be still resisting the Russian advance. That it is doing so is shown by the fact that General Dimitrieff was decorated by the Tsar for holding Lemberg successfully against an overwhelming Austrian attack which surged round the town for four days. This, by the way, was the first suggestion we had that the Austrians after their tremendous defeats were still able to take the offensive. We would not have heard about the attack on Lemberg at all, had it not been considered interesting news that the Tsar had decorated the gallant general some time afterwards. Despite this effort, it is clear that the armies of

the Dual Kingdom have been severely defeated and driven back.

Germans in Command.

The most disquieting news from this theatre of war is that the Austrian forces have evidently been put under the control of the German General Staff. Now, the Austrians have a peculiar genius for muddling things, just as the Germans are adepts at organisation and attention to detail. German control means more to the Austrians than the arrival of several fresh army corps. Not only are German generals now in command, but many German regiments have arrived to stiffen the Austrian resistance. We hear, too, of Austrian forces in Belgium. These will certainly be Slav regiments, which, though they cannot be trusted to fight against the Russians, will, probably have no hesitation in operating against the Allies in France. Russian cables a week or so ago spoke confidently of a rapid advance on Cracow, the old capital of Poland, but we hear nothing of that now. Instead we learn that there is a formidable Austro-German army on the left bank of the Vistula, which must be defeated ere the road to Cracow is open.

The Russians have crossed the Carpathians, and their forces are now advancing into Hungary. There will hardly be an attempt to reach Buda-Pesth in force, owing to the difficulty of keeping communications open during the heavy winter. No doubt this advance is to protect the march of other troops through north Hungary towards Bohemia. Unless the Russians are pouring into Hungary in great force we may expect a serious check there if the Germans hold the Russian armies in Galicia. In the long run, though, numbers will not be denied, and like a gigantic steam-roller, Russia will ultimately crush her way to Berlin.

Misery and Starvation.

We do not believe, though, that the end of the war will be brought about by the presence of the Cossacks in Berlin, but rather by the internal crisis which must ere long overwhelm the country. There is enough food in Germany to last for a year or more, but people without money cannot get it until the State gives it to the starving. There must already be immense suffering owing to the entire cessation of industrial work of every description. The shutting down of all printing establishments—a small thing compared to the great factories—means that thousands of girls who depend on their wages for existence are now penniless. Hundreds of thousands of families no longer receive the weekly earnings of the house father, and must rely entirely on the State for bread. As the weeks go on the misery must become more and more acute, and there will come a time when patriotism, intense as it is in Germany, can stand the strain no longer, and economic causes rather than defeat in battle will compel the Kaiser to sue for peace. These internal causes may force the Emperor to make desperate efforts in the field. Military disaster may follow, but the economic state of the country will be the real reason for German defeat in the end.

The European Lie Factory.

Belgrade has long had the unenviable reputation of being the best lie factory in Europe. Whether the temporary capital, Nisch, took over this distinction with its other functions, we shall not know until the war is over. Certain it is, though, that we have had a continuous series of victories reported from Servia, victories not unexpected because we naturally assumed that the Austrians would abandon any active assault on Servia, and leave only a few troops to prevent Servian incursions to the north.

We have been told of immense Austrian losses, and informed that the Servians were thundering at the gates of Serai. We had grounds for the hope that there would be a serious diversion by the Servian army in Austria proper. It is therefore doubly disappointing to learn that the Servians have, only now, succeeded in expelling the Austrians from King Peter's own dominions. If the Servians have only achieved momentous successes in the cable offices, the crumbling up of the collection of nationalities, linked together in the mediaeval survival called Austria, is not so near as we had prayed for.

Italy and the Balkan Powers.

The attitude of Italy is of immense importance. If she has held back from joining the Allies because the German arms were apparently victorious, she is not likely to league herself with them now, but will wait until Germany is really defeated in France, or until Austria actually begins to break up. That Austria fears her is shown by the despatch of several regiments to the Trentino to keep watch and ward over the Austro-Italian border. Turkey still preserves her neutrality, but states that she mobilised in order to denounce the "Capitulations," to which the Powers have, of course, not agreed. These Capitulations date from the earliest days of the Turkish Empire, and give foreign countries control over their own nationals in Turkish territory. The "Goeben" and the "Breslau" now form part of the Turkish fleet, and rumours of the arrival of German officers and munitions of war are rife. How these could possibly reach Turkey is not explained. They would have to pass through neutral territory, and although the Danube is open to them, if Servia is really achieving the successes she claims she should be able to prevent the em-

barkation of guns on ships in the river. Even if vessels succeed in dropping down the stream, the Russian Fleet ought to be waiting them in the Black Sea. The death of the King of Roumania at this time of crisis may cause Roumania to waver in her neutrality. Considerable offers have been made her both by Russia and Austria, but she is not likely to forget her history. By doing nothing during the Balkan war, she at the end picked up a considerable slice of new territory she had long coveted; when she went in with Russia against Turkey, and saved the day for the Tsar, she was rewarded by having her choicest lands taken from her. It looks as if a waiting game would pay much the best!

The Neutrality of Holland.

A couple of months ago we pointed out that Holland was far more valuable to Germany as a neutral than as an ally. The Kaiser's men have been exceedingly careful to respect the neutrality of Dutch territory, even when besieging Antwerp. The Allies are hardly likely now to violate Dutch territorial waters by using the Scheldt; the time for that is passed. Having weathered the storm thus far Holland has a fair chance of keeping out of the struggle to the end. Germany naturally wants to use Holland to some extent as a conduit pipe for food supplies, and she also wants to save her shipping in Dutch harbours all over the world. Holland, on the other hand, would lose all her colonies if she sided with Germany. The only result of Portugal's alleged declaration of war against Germany will be that she will at once acquire a large number of German ships, which must surely have run to the Tagus, the only available neutral port on the Eastern side of the Atlantic.

Dreadnoughts of the Air.

Last month we set forth the reasons why we believed that the Zeppelins had not been greatly used in the war, and maintained that at most only two had been destroyed. This view is strikingly confirmed by the report from General French which stated that none of these rigid airships have yet been seen by our forces in France. Very disquieting is the news that Count Zeppelin is forming an airship camp at Wilhelmshaven, from whence he proposes to make a raid on England. If the Zeppelins are really assembling on the coast, now is the time for the British and French aeroplanes to strike, whilst the airships are on the ground, and more or less helpless. We earnestly hope that the value of the Zeppelin has been greatly exaggerated, but the Germans having so signally demonstrated their superiority in big guns, quick-firing artillery and aeroplanes, we dare not lightly dismiss the possibility that they have evolved ordnance which will really make Zeppelins impervious to aeroplane attack. If the rigid airship can really defend itself effectively against heavier-than-air machines, then the outlook is indeed bad. Articles have appeared recently quoting Colonel Capper's account of an imaginary battle between airship and aeroplane, from which considerable comfort has been drawn. The gallant colonel, who is at the head of the British army aviation corps, wrote his fanciful description, however, before it was known that the Zeppelins mounted guns on top of the framework. He indicates that the moment the aeroplane succeeds in soaring above the airship the latter's fate is sealed. We now know that the aeroplane would have to rise to so great a height above the Zeppelin to avoid her guns that the chances of dropping a bomb successfully are very slight.

Pessimism or Knowledge?

We have been accused of taking a far too pessimistic view of the war. This, alas! is due to a rather more intimate knowledge of the German people and their thorough methods than many critics of the operations appear to possess. Such knowledge compels this attitude, nor has the war thus far justified any very optimistic feelings. The German army, whatever its faults, has demonstrated that it is the finest organised military machine in the world. Man for man we put the Briton and the Frenchman higher as individual fighters than the German, but the days when battles were decided by individual prowess have gone for ever. We have now not a contest between muscle and brawn, but between guns and machinery. When two forces meet, equally matched in big guns and numbers, the final result may rest with the individual soldier, but thus far, at anyrate, the superior equipment of the Germans has told heavily in their favour.

Exit von Molke.

In a very dark sky there are fortunately gleams of light, the most brilliant thus far being the removal of Count von Molke as Chief of Staff. An army which is satisfied with its success does not change leaders; when things are going badly its chiefs are always made the scapegoats. The Russian commanders changed with bewildering rapidity in the Russo-Japanese war, but the Japanese generals remained in control throughout. The French had many chiefs in 1870-71, the Prussians made no important changes. The disappearance of von Molke is a good sign.

The Loyal Boers.

The splendid way in which the Boers of South Africa have rallied to the Flag, and the decision of General Botha to himself lead them in the field, sent

a thrill throughout the Empire. The rather mysterious death of General De La Rey and the resignation of General Beyers from the headship of the forces, is counterbalanced by the loyalty of General Hertzog and his followers. It is unfortunate that so much impetuosity was shown in attacking the only German colony which is at all adequately garrisoned. The reverse sustained will show the South Africans that, unlike others who have attacked German possessions, they have not a walk-over before them. When Botha arrives to take control, they will no doubt march to victory.

In the Pacific.

Most of the German possessions in the Pacific have now been taken, either by the British or the Japanese. Nowhere was there great resistance. The only regrettable incident was the loss of the submarine AE1, with her whole crew of 35. The disaster was due to accident, not to the enemy. The Australians now occupy German New Guinea, the New Zealanders German Samoa, thus finally realising a dream which almost came true in 1900. The Japanese should not have much difficulty in subduing Kiau Chau. The "Gneisnau" and "Scharnhorst" made a morning call at Apia, but sailed away without doing any damage. Later she dropped in at Papeete and destroyed the dismantled French gunboat "Zelee." It looks as if they were making for South America, where neutral ports abound, and where, by the way, Great Britain has no coaling stations, which makes matters a little more even, as between the rival cruisers, should it come to a fight. The "Emden" has had an extraordinary career in the Bay of Bengal. Ultimately she must be captured, as, if Portugal declares war against Germany, the one neutral harbour in the Indian Ocean, New Goa,

would be closed to her. The chafing warships should prevent her return to Java. Despite the statements of the crews of vessels she has sunk, that her gunnery is execrable, she managed to do a great deal of damage, with but a few shots, when she boldly entered Madras Harbour. The "Königsberg," too, appears to have shot straight when she sank the unprepared

"Pegasus" in Zanzibar harbour. The doings of these small protected cruisers do not really amount to anything, but they do serve to demonstrate to us the absolute need of naval supremacy. If these two little things, both smaller than the "Melbourne," can do this damage, what would have happened to our shipping if a few really formidable warships had been at large?

The New Federal Government.

The following ministers were elected by the Labour Caucus:—

Prime Minister and Treasurer, Mr. Andrew Fisher (Q.).
 Attorney-General Mr. W. M. Hughes (N.S.W.).
 Minister for External Affairs, Mr. J. A. Arthur (V.).
 Minister of Defence, Senator Pearce (W.A.).
 Minister of Customs, Mr. Frank Tudor (V.).
 Minister for Home Affairs, Mr. W. O. Archibald (S.A.).
 Postmaster-General, Mr. W. G. Spence (N.S.W.).
 Vice-President of the Executive Council, Senator Gardiner (N.S.W.).
 Honorary Ministers, Mr. H. Mahon (W.A.), Mr. J. Jensen (T.), Senator Russell (V.).

On the whole it is a stronger team than the last which Mr. Fisher led. The inclusion of Mr. Arthur is especially happy, and it is to be hoped his health will soon allow him to take active charge of his department. The programme of the new Government is a rather ambitious one. Its most notable omission is that it makes no mention whatever of finance, nor does it give any hint as to how the looming deficit of £11,000,000 or so, is to be met. We are to have the initiative referendum, adequate protection, whatever that may mean, pensions are to be increased—when funds permit—and generally legislation is foreshadowed on the lines of the platform on which Labour fought the election. The complete silence of the Government on the subject of new taxa-

tion means that it will probably try to meet the deficit by borrowing, in part directly from the people, in part by the issue of paper money. Whilst to borrow for special war expenditure is quite allowable, and, indeed, inevitable, to borrow to make good the difference between ordinary revenue and expenditure is bad finance, and is, indeed, against the entire policy of the Federal Labour Party. In the ordinary way there would have been a deficit of some three millions this year; there will be a drop of nearly two millions in customs revenue (as no German goods are coming in), so that something like £5,000,000 will in any case have to be raised by new taxation. We ought to know very soon what form this will take. The Treasurer may possibly cast envious eyes upon the *per capita* payment he has to make to the States, but even if it be within his power to suspend this, he would hardly dare venture on such high-handed burglary. New South Wales, the champion borrower amongst the States, has managed to raise a local loan of a million, on which she has to pay no less than 5½ per cent. This means that other borrowing States will have to pay an equally high rate of interest. It would indeed be surprising if ere long far higher rates have not to be paid.

The Panama Exhibition.

For some extraordinary reason umbrage has been taken in certain quarters at the attitude of the United States to-



Murphy, in "San Francisco Call."
"THE CANAL IS OPEN!"

wards the war. Thus far President Wilson has held a perfectly just balance between the fighting nations. The neutrality of the States has been absolutely preserved. The President even went so far as not to sanction the contemplated purchase of German vessels lying in American ports, although ships are urgently needed for the conveyance of American produce all over the world. It is urged that the United States ought to have protested against the violation of Belgian territory, and to have remonstrated with the German Emperor for the "Methods of Barbarism" employed by his troops. Now the United States has consistently refused to be dragged into European entanglements. She says to Europe, "hands off the New World," and the Great Powers have more than once said to her "hands off Europe." This was notably the case in the Span-

ish-American war, when the European Powers definitely informed President McKinley that the United States Fleet was not to be used against Spain in European waters. We ought not to quarrel with the United States now of all times because her Government preserves absolute neutrality. We ought, rather, by every means in our power, to endeavour to cement the ties which already bind us, not fray them by carping criticism. The time must come, nay, is perhaps close upon us, when it will be imperative that the English-speaking peoples of the Pacific stand closely together. The good offices of our powerful cousin may be urgently required by Europe before peace is finally signed.

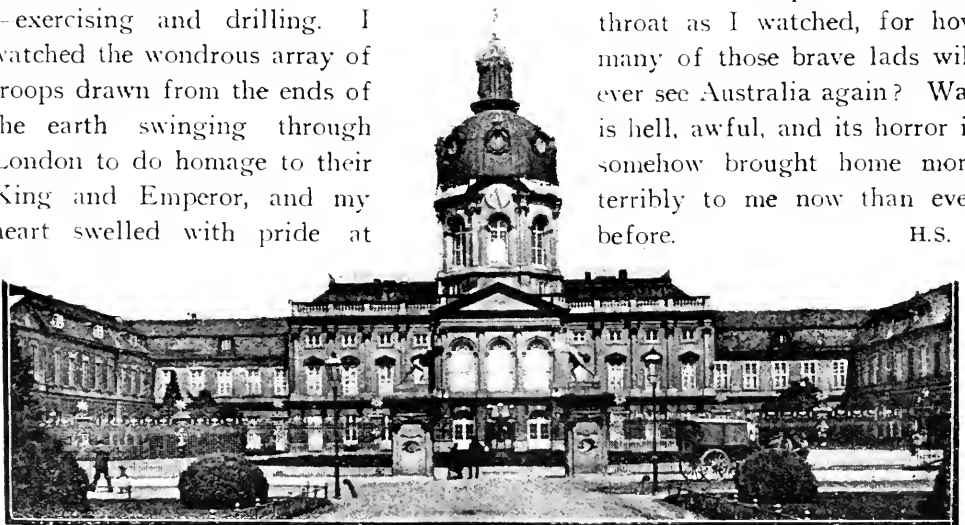
One of the most statesmanlike decisions of the new Labour Government was to go ahead with the Australian representation at the great Panama Exhibition. We want new markets for our raw products; we also want to purchase elsewhere things hitherto obtained from Germany. Preferably in England, failing that, then in America. An exhibit will be of greater value to us than it would have been had the war not broken out. To abandon it altogether would have been a most short-sighted policy. The great canal has already been thrown open to traffic, without any fuss or pomp of circumstance. It was wanted, so it was made available. That was all. Letters from Mexico City advise us that the people have little faith in the ability of Carranza, who is now provisional President, being able to bring order out of the chaos in which Mexico is plunged.

THE AUSTRALIAN CONTINGENT.

I stood on the steps of Federal Parliament House, and watched the men Victoria is sending to the front march past the Governor-General and the Governor of Victoria. I have seen many soldiers in all parts of the world. Vivid in my memory still remains that marvellous sight in the Champs Elysee, when the marching thousands filled that great avenue, the rhythmic rise and fall of scarlet, capped by the great forest of cold steel glittering in the sunshine. In Berlin I watched the garrison of the city pass in martial pomp with almost uncanny precision before the Kaiser, a stern but wonderfully martial-looking figure. I can still picture the Champs-de-mars at St. Petersburg filled with thousands on thousands of Russian soldiery, marching and counter-marching to words of unintelligible command. I have watched the slender-flanked Hungarian and Austrian regiments passing gaily through Vienna, have seen the dour Dutch soldiers at manoeuvres, and the slighter Belgians at work outside Brussels. I have seen the Servians—most unattractive of all soldiers—exercising and drilling. I watched the wondrous array of troops drawn from the ends of the earth swinging through London to do homage to their King and Emperor, and my heart swelled with pride at

the sight. I have gazed, astonished as a motley crew, part of President Diaz's army, slouched carelessly along, marching through the capital of the Aztecs. I have seen American soldiers being drilled and exercised, and, perhaps most remarkable of all, have followed the rush of the Bersagliari through the street of Imperial Rome, but never have I felt so deeply moved, so near to tears, as when I watched those young Australians go by. Their lines were poorly dressed, their salutes faulty, their horses ill-groomed. Compared to the highly-trained troops of Europe—well, they would have made a German drill sergeant weep! But they were *men*. Each one had voluntarily offered his life for the Empire, not because he had to, like the men now fighting in death grips at the front, but because he was determined to do his best to uphold that Empire which had made it possible for him and his to live care-free in a land where *liberté, fraternité, égalité* are far more real than anywhere else in the world. A lump rose in my throat as I watched, for how many of those brave lads will ever see Australia again? War is hell, awful, and its horror is somehow brought home more terribly to me now than ever before.

H.S.

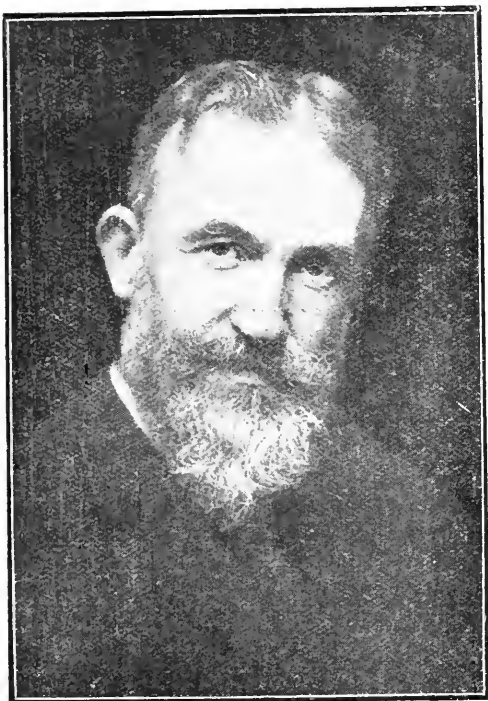


THE IMPERIAL PALACE, CHARLOTTENBERG.

THE PERIL OF POTSDAM.

OUR BUSINESS NOW.

BY BERNARD SHAW.*



BERNARD SHAW.

Now that we are at war, it is as well that we should know what the war is about. To begin with, we are not at war because Germany made "an infamous proposal" that we should allow her to violate Belgian neutrality. If it had suited us to accept that proposal we could have found plenty of reasons for accepting it (the advocates of our own neutrality have found some of them already) no more infamous than the diplomatic reasons we have given in the past for courses which happen to be convenient to us. Let us therefore drop it. Our national trick of virtuous indignation is tiresome enough in peaceful

party strife at home. At war it is ungallant and unpardonable. Let us take our pugnacity to the field, and leave our hypocrisy and our bad blood at home. They weaken the heroic fighter and encourage only the blackguard.

This war is a Balance of Power war and nothing else. And the fact we have all to face is that if our side is victorious, the result will be an Overbalance of Power in favour of Russia far more dangerous to all the other combatants than the one we are fighting to redress. Mr. C. P. Trevelyan's resignation shows how strongly an Englishman with a cultivated historical sense of the Balance of Civilisation in Europe can regard Germany as so important a bulwark of that civilisation that even when we are at war with her we must aim finally at the conservation of her power to defend its eastern frontier. This need not discourage us in the field; on the contrary, we shall punch Prussia's head all the more gloriously if we do it for honour and not for malice, meaning to let her up when we have knocked the militarism out of her, and taught her to respect us. Prussian militarism has bullied us for forty years; and a month ago neither Germany nor France believed that we would fight when it came to the point. That is why there was such a wild explosion of delighted surprise when the French Chamber learnt that we were game after all. That is why the Kaiser, though reckless of every other interest concerned, offered us the best excuse he could invent for our neutrality, believing that we were only too ready to snatch at it. And that is also why we had to take off our coat and sail in. We had to show that when it comes to a balance of the Powers we are no mere dummy weights in the scale. And since Sir

*By arrangement with the "Daily News and Leader," London.

Edward Grey had written our names on the back of his bill to France, we had to see that it was paid to the uttermost farthing, and with the handsomest interest possible. Our immediate business is therefore to fight as hard as we can; for our weight when the settlement comes will depend on the part we shall have played in the conflict.

"THE MAILED FIST NONSENSE."

Meanwhile, the political influence of organised labour at home must not be wasted in idle and exasperating platitudes about the wickedness of war, and the extravagance of big armaments, and the simplicity of non-intervention, and all the other splintered planks of the old Peace, Retrenchment, and Reform platform. The wickedness of war is a reason for keeping out of war; but, the field once taken, it is not a practicable reason for betraying your allies and your country by throwing down your arms and kneeling down to pray; and people who will not recognise this fact during a war get swept angrily aside, and are no longer listened to. The extravagance of armaments is an income-tax payer's grievance, not a workman's grievance. Every Labour member who knows the A, B, C of Labour economics knows that we might have doubled and trebled and quintupled our present armament within the last ten years without one single useful person in the country being a penny the worse, and a good many wasters and idlers and their retinues would be the better for having less to waste and more honourable employment. As to non-intervention, it is an insular superstition: the modern Labour movement knows that Labour politics are international, and that if Militarism is to be struck down the mortal blow must be aimed at Potsdam.

Consider for a moment the mischief done by this Peace, Retrenchment and Reform superstition. Why was it that Mr. Asquith and Sir Edward Grey did not dare to tell the House of Commons that we had entered into a fighting alliance with France against Germany? Why did they actually go to the length

of saying—how impossible the words sound now!—that "this country is not under any obligation, not public and known to Parliament, which compels it to take part in any war"—as if we could have honourably left France in the lurch after the joint military and naval plan of campaign, Belgium or no Belgium? Solely because they were afraid that if they told the whole truth, both the Labour members and the non-interventionist, anti-armament Liberals would have revolted and abandoned them to Ulster. The mischief of this was that it encouraged the Continental conviction that we would not fight. This conviction might have restrained France from declaring war if France had wanted war; but this was just what France did not want. Its effect on Germany must have been disastrous. Germany was the country that wanted restraining; and the official prevarication by which the peace party was duped encouraged Germany to believe that we would back out, and thereby precipitated Germany's desperate rush at France. Had the Government or the Labour Party had a real modern foreign policy, Mr. Asquith might have said fearlessly to Prussian militarism: "If you attempt to smash France, we two will smash you if we can. We have had enough of the Germany of Bismarck, which all the world loathes, and we will see whether we cannot revive the Germany of Goethe and Beethoven, which has not an enemy on earth. But if you will drop your mailed fist nonsense and be neighbourly, we will guarantee you against Russia, just as heartily as we now guarantee France against you." Can it be doubted that if this had been said resolutely and with the vigorous support of all sections of the House, Potsdam would have thought twice and thrice before declaring war? Can it be alleged that anything could have happened worse than has happened? Instead of offering Germany a way out, we drove her to desperation; all because it was not safe to talk frankly to the Labour Party and the old Liberals about foreign affairs.

THE ROOT OF THE MISCHIEF.

The difference between the foreign policy of Socialism and the foreign policy of Capital is very simple. Capital sends the flag at the heels of commercial speculation for profit: Socialism would keep the flag at the head of civilisation. Capital, badly wanted at home, is sent abroad after cheap labour into undeveloped countries; and the financiers use the control of our army and fleet, which they obtain through their control of Parliament, solely to guard their unpatriotic investments. That is the root of the present mischief. France, instead of using her surplus income in abolishing French slums and building up French children into strong men and women, has lent it to Russia to strengthen the most tyrannical government in Europe; and to secure the interest on her loan she has entered into an unnatural alliance with Russia against her more civilised neighbours. We have no right to throw stones at France on this account; for we made an agreement with Russia, of a still more sordidly commercial character, for the exploitation of Persia with the capital that should have fed our starving children, and rebuilt Dundee and Glasgow, Dublin, Liverpool, and London as decent human habitations. And now mark the consequences. Germany with a hostile France on one side, and a hostile Russia on the other, is in a position so dangerous that we here in our secure island can form no conception of its intolerable tension. We have never considered this, and never allowed for it. By our blindness to it we have brought about the war. We have deliberately added to the strain by making a military and naval anti-German alliance with France without at the same time balancing its effect by assuring Ger-

many that if she kept peace with France we would not help Russia against her, nor in the last resource allow Russia to advance her frontier westward. Is it to be wondered at that Potsdam militarism, with the chronic panic of militarism raised to desperation by the menace of Russia, France and England, made a wild attempt to cut its way out of the difficulty after a despairing appeal to us to let it fight one to two instead of one to three? Let us be just to Potsdam. It may serve Potsdam right that she frightened us all so much that we became incapable of realising that our terror was nothing to hers. But if we had been true to civilisation and kept our capital at home and our honour untarnished by squalid commercial adventures in the East, we should not have been frightened; and we should have controlled the situation and kept the European peace.

This is not a time for idle recrimination; but it is a time for showing that there is such a thing as an intelligent and patriotic foreign policy—patriotic in the European as well as the insular sense, and that our Governments are too much under the thumb of the Stock Exchange to find it. History will not excuse us because, after making war inevitable, we run round at the last moment begging everybody not to make a disturbance, but come to London and be talked to kindly but firmly by Sir Edward Grey.

Our business now is first to convince Potsdam that it cannot trample down France, England, Belgium, and Holland, and must pay reasonable damages for having tried to; and, second, to convince Russia that she must not take advantage of the lesson to subdue Germany.





COUNTING THEIR CHICKENS!

WHAT MAY HAPPEN.

BY HENRY STEAD

He is a bold man who ventures to forecast what may ultimately happen in Europe. No doubt everyone is sure of two things: first, that Germany will be beaten, and, second, that she will be forced to pay a huge indemnity. Had Austria not failed in her allotted task of holding Russia, the first assumption would hardly have come true. It is to Russia the French owe the fact that the Germans are not overrunning their fair land to-day. Clearly the defeat of the Austrian armies, although probably not quite so drastic as we have been led to believe, and the Russian advance into East Prussia, compelled the Germans to transfer large bodies of troops from the west to the eastern frontier. It is evident that the Russians met with severe reverses in Prussia, but they had achieved their object and saved France.

Time is against Germany and in favour of the Allies. Every day Russia becomes more formidable, and Russia is the deciding factor in the whole war. The Allies may hurl themselves against the invaders, but they have little chance of driving them to the Rhine unless the Germans have to greatly weaken their forces to keep back the Russians. Before the first Cossack enters Berlin—he will probably come by way of Bohemia—the German fleet will have been launched against the British. There is only one possible result, but before the last German Dreadnought sinks beneath the waves or strikes her colours under a storm of shot and shell, it is inevitable that many British ships, with thousands of gallant tars, will have gone down in their last fight. After this final effort of the desperate Germans the overlordship of the seas will be temporarily transferred to our cousins across the Atlantic, who even now have a fleet almost as powerful as that of the Kaiser.

When the Cossack does finally reach Berlin, it means Germany is beaten flat,

and the Kaiser must sue for peace. Ere that happens, though, and at best I fear it cannot occur before the end of the European spring, some six or seven months hence, Germany will have utterly exhausted herself by a resistance of whose fierceness we have little conception. What terms will the Allies make? Where will Austria be? These are hard questions to answer. The dissolution of Austria appears imminent, and the moment it does begin, Italy is certain to join the Allies against Germany. If she does not, she might not be able to secure as much of the spoil as she desires. It is practically certain that the Allies have already promised her Trieste and Fiume, and the territory adjacent to the Adriatic, but she probably wants more.

The Allies will demand the cession of Alsace-Lorraine; they may retain the German overseas possessions they have taken, and will no doubt temporarily restore the Duchy of Poland in order to give Russia Galicia and Prussian Posen. They will also demand a huge indemnity. If Germany is on her back she will perforce have to agree to the loss of territory, but will probably be so exhausted that she would find it impossible to pay the indemnity. This would entail a long occupancy of Germany by the Allies, who would have to collect the Customs duties, and thus be their own paymasters. It is quite possible, however, that some at any rate of the Allies might consider this almost like cutting off one's nose to spite one's face, because when all is said and done Germany is one of the best customers of all of them; they cannot afford, in their own interests, to utterly beggar her. It is quite possible that the indemnity finally agreed upon will be much less than is now assumed, but, as a *quid pro quo* against that, the Allies may compel Germany to limit both fleet and

army, although that sort of policy, whilst possible with a subject nation, will be exceedingly difficult to enforce for long on 60,000,000 people of the virile Teuton type. Still, we may assume loss of territory, an indemnity, and a convention to restrict armaments.

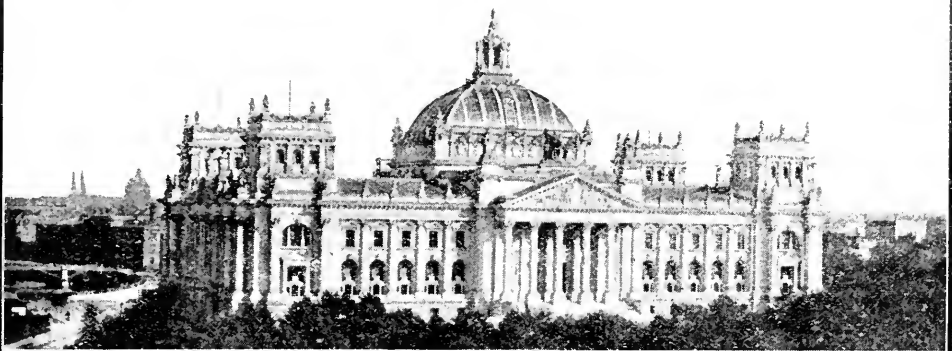
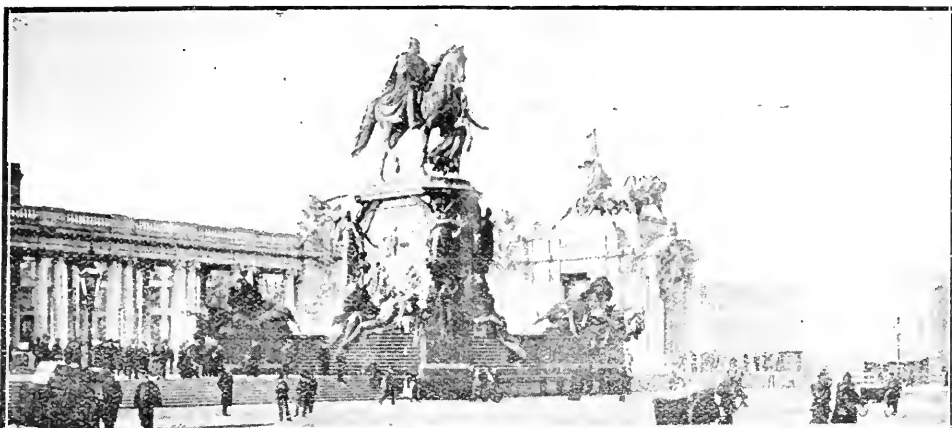
So far so good; but what is after all the basic cause of British uneasiness about Germany? It is not her fleet, we know we are its master; not her army, we are secure against it in our sea-girt isle; not her airships, formidable though they be. What, then, is it? Surely we dread only her commercial supremacy, and that is a domination we cannot smash by force of arms. It is not the German battleship but the German merchant who is the real cause of the tension between Briton and Teuton. After the war the Germans will be obliged, for their very existence, to cultivate their industries as never before. The cutting down of army and navy will be a blessing to the merchant, and the disappearance of the military clique which has dominated Germany so long will be hailed with joy by all the workers in the Empire. In crushing German militarism we will undoubtedly help German industrialism. In science, in research, and painstaking industry the Teuton stands unrivalled. The destruction of the military machine will not affect this pre-eminence, it will augment it. But how vastly preferable is an industrial menace to a military one!

On the break-up of Austria the German provinces of that dual Empire will inevitably gravitate towards Germany, and as the richest part of Austria has been settled by Germans, this will add greatly to the prosperity of the entire nation. There will undoubtedly be

grave danger of trouble between Italy and Servia over Dalmatia. Italy wants the Adriatic as a sea of her own. She violently opposed Servia's occupation of Durazzo during the late war, and created Albania to prevent the Servians getting access to the sea. In this she had Austria's help. A further rearrangement of the boundaries of the troubled Balkans will take place, probably there will be much bloodshed ere they are finally fixed. Roumania will certainly seize the opportunity of bringing her 3,000,000 nationals, now living in Hungary, under her own flag by annexing the land on which they have settled. Hungary will again become a separate kingdom, and Bohemia will either form itself into a republic or else come under Russian sway. Russia has long wanted Constantinople. As the prime factor in subduing Germany, might she not insist upon getting it? Who could say her nay if she really set her mind on it? There is plenty of room for trouble before a final settlement is arrived at, and that Pandora box of Europe, the Balkan States, is likely to supply all the elements needed. Let us hope this war will cause Military Germany to disappear off the map. Fortunately for the rest of the world a great industrial nation cannot itself be destroyed.

The vanishing of the German menace should immediately result in a reduction in the huge sums spent annually on armaments by all the Powers, great and small. The release of this money cannot fail to greatly benefit all social endeavour, and tend to uplift the general well-being of the nations. If this war does nothing else than end the terrible competition in armaments, it will not have been fought in vain.





NOTABLE PLACES IN BERLIN.

1. The Memorial Statue of William the Great, first Emperor of United Germany.
2. The German Parliament House.
3. The Brandenburg Gate, at the top of the famous Unter Den Linden.

IN BERLIN IN WAR TIME.

AT THE HEART OF DANGER.

BY HENRY W. NEVINSON.

Berlin has one great advantage over London: it can show its feelings definitely and at once. We have Trafalgar square—good enough for meetings to express either indignation or triumph. But Trafalgar-square is nothing to Berlin's central avenue, Unter den Linden. From the Kaiser's Palace that great street runs absolutely straight westward to the Brandenburg Gate, a full mile away. From the point where Frederick the Great's statue rides towards the palace as in life, it becomes the "Linden"—a double avenue, 70 yards wide, with trees, and gardens down the centre, and a main asphalt road on either side, each road limited to the traffic passing east or west, so that there is no confusion.

Up and down the pavements and the central garden avenue the Berlin people now pace all day and most of the night. They are intensely excited—"exalted"

—but they do not shout or clamour, and no one makes a speech. Every now and then a band of young students and girls goes singing down the street, waving flags, and pushing through the crowd. They sing Germany's great national songs, "Die Wacht am Rhein" and "Deutschland, Deutschland über Alles" are the favourites, but sometimes one hears the Blücher song of "The Old Field-Marshal" and other echoes of the "War of Liberation" just a century ago. For awhile the crowd runs after them cheering. But another excitement carries them away. A taxi or van drives rapidly through, and men stand in it flinging out single sheets, printed in large type, with the latest rumour or fact. These are the "Extra-Blätter" of the various newspapers. They are thrown out gratis

THE SOLDIERS.

And then a squadron of Uhlans comes, their white pennons wrapped closely round the top of their lances, not showing the black skull that stands for "Death or Glory." Like all the army, they wear the new uniforms of dull grey, said to be invisible at a short distance, though I doubt if it is so good as greenish khaki. They have grey covers carefully drawn over their helmets to prevent them shining, but one cannot say how long those grey covers may last on the field. The infantry wear them too, and on their backs both horse and foot wear the brown overcoat tied in a circle round the knapsack of brown hide. Behind each infantry regiment on the march follow the machine guns, and then the "train" pontoons, field kitchens, baggage waggons, ammunition waggons, ambulances, and stores. You may judge how they are cheered as they start for the front. Finely built and well-trained fellows they are, of a stock so much like our own at its best.

THE KAISER.

One cheer, and only one, is louder than for them. About four o'clock every afternoon the restless, moving crowd stands still. It waits, sometimes two hours on end, thickly lined up along the kerbstones. The police clear the road and stop the traffic. Presently a motor horn is heard. It sounds four distinct notes like a regimental bugle-call. Then a large, low motor with a crown upon it rushes past. We catch a glimpse of a man in grey uniform—the field uniform of the Cuirassier Guards—but his helmet has no grey covering. At his side is a woman with great white ostrich feathers in her hat. His right

hand is raised in perpetual salute. He answers the enormous shout of the people as the cheering rolls along the Linden beside the speeding motor. It is the Kaiser. People may say what they like; he is one of the world's remarkable men; capable of stupendous errors, but capable of generous greatness, too. One thing only I will now remember: he has granted an amnesty to all political offenders. He asked no pledges. He made no conditions. "Many have opposed me," he said to the Reichstag; "I pardon them with all my heart. We are all Germans now." When will our Government show an equal generosity? When will they have the greatness to extend a heartfelt pardon to all political offenders, whether men or women?

PRIVATE SUFFERING.

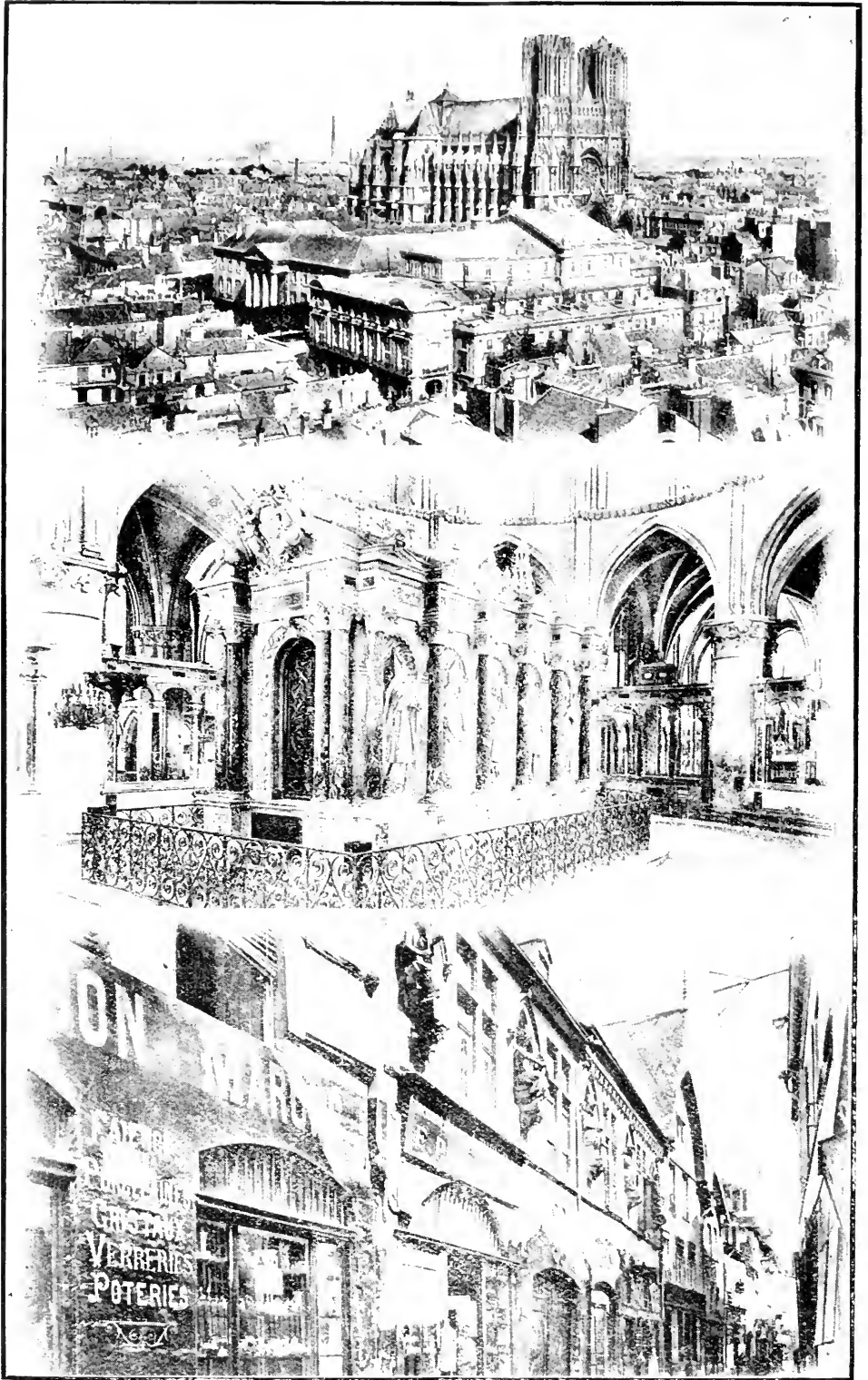
We ordinary people suffer in London; in Berlin they suffer more. It is not merely that in nearly every family some man has gone out to serve, and when the full levy of all between 20 and 50 is complete, they estimate about nine million will have gone. Prices are rushing up fast. The Government has tried to fix the price of rye and wheat flour, of maize and salt; but still the cost of living is doubled. The families of the reservists have to live somehow. The Government has issued forms under which a poverty-stricken wife can apply for an allowance, with something extra for every child under fifteen. But it is a hard pinch. Government has also issued regulations for the billeting of soldiers in private houses, payment ranging from 9s. a day for lodging a general down to 1s. for a soldier and 6d. for a horse. But that is little against the expense and trouble. Then there is the harvest. It is ripe; a good deal is cut and tied in sheaves. Bands of students and

schoolboys volunteer to gather it in. Women toil day and night in the fields. But still the loss of food is incalculable.

Before mobilisation began on August 2 all trains were crowded to bursting. Every well-to-do family was away on holidays, and came hurrying back. All registered luggage was lost. At every station trunks and portmanteaux stand piled up in enormous heaps. The main Friedrich-strasse station is so crammed that the luggage has overflowed into the square, and lies exposed to man and rain. On Tuesday the stationmaster told me my portmanteau was one of 72,000 lost in Berlin alone. All day long the wistful owners wander among these mountains of possessions, peering and digging as for treasure. Cabs, taxis, and trams have almost stopped. The men have joined their companies. Every horse that can crawl tries to trot with the army now.

THE FUTURE.

Germany believes she is fighting for existence, and probably she is right. As I passed out of the country and saw the familiar German villages again—the well-built houses, the well-cultivated fields, the churches, and the woods—I could not but remember all that Germany had done for the world—her orderly life, her thoughtful literature, her patient scholarship, and adventurous science. I saw the children of so many careful generations—so neatly dressed, so clean, so well-behaved, so carefully trained in mind and body. And when I thought of what a Russian village is, and how Russian troops might soon be occupying those pleasant homes, I seemed once more to be witnessing the barbarian hordes pouring like a torrent of mud over the established civilisation of the world for its destruction.



VIEWS IN DEVASTATED RHEIMS

1. The magnificent and historic cathedral, which dominates the town.
2. The beautifully carved tomb of St. Remi in the Eglise Saint Remi.
3. An ancient street, with the famous "House of the Musicians."

THE UNSOUND FOUNDATIONS.

By NORMAN ANGELL, Author of "The Great Illusion."

All other speculations as to the causes of this catastrophe, or lessons to be drawn from it, must take into account this central and pivotal fact: that the men of Europe have not yet learned so to organise their society as to make their conduct obey their intention. We are all of one mind to do one thing, and we all do the exact reverse. We are slaves and puppets of forces which make our conduct, not something which our minds and consciences have settled upon, but something as much divorced from moral responsibility and human choice as the bending of the growing corn before the wind.

This fact is most generally cited as demonstrating the inevitability of war: as proving that men can have no choice. It only proves, of course, that so far men have failed to lay even the foundations of their society aright.

It is not in this present case even a matter of uncontrollable elemental passion. There is no passion. A Chauvinist journalist writes of it as "a war without hate," and all first-hand testimony as to feeling in France and Germany is to the effect that the millions are going submissively, unresistingly, to kill and be killed for some cause concerning which they have little feeling and less understanding. Nor is it a question of the collision of two rights. The general population does not know in all this tangle on which side right lies. So that, in simple fact, we have a population of 350 million souls, the immense majority of whom—and by that I do not mean something more than half, but more nearly a proportion represented by 349,900,000 as against the 100,000—were in favour of peace. And all these millions who wanted peace have gone to war. Everybody wanted not to go to war. Everybody has gone to war. The action which we

did not intend we have taken. The action we did intend, we have not taken.

This essential helplessness of men, their failure to have formed a society which can carry out their intention, goes a great deal deeper than mere political machinery. It would be easy to show, of course, that in our own country, in some respects the most democratic in Europe, the determining factor of policy has been the secret action of three or four men, incurring, without popular sanction, without the nation knowing to what it is committed, obligations involving the lives of tens of thousands and the destiny of our Empire. We find that we have obligations of "honour" of which not one man in a hundred thousand was a week ago aware—obligations which, indeed, we had been assured solemnly did not exist. The particular political contrivance which makes that possible may, perhaps later, be changed, if, after the welter into which we are entering is over, sufficient civilisation is left to us. The more superficial aspects of the trouble we may be able to change, unless the improvement of Parliamentary institutions in Europe becomes something which the quite possible development of this war in the direction of a Slav hegemony of Europe places outside practical politics.

But one must look for the prime cause beyond the mere defects of machinery; in the defects of an education which makes it impossible for the mass to judge facts save in their most superficial aspect, or to think of war as other than a jolly football match; which also makes it impossible for the average man to keep two co-related facts in view at the same time. In all this business, the average man has overlooked so capital a fact as the predominating part to be played by the Russian autocracy manipulating 150,000,000 of peasants, at the real head, it may be, of 200,000,000, in control of a country impregnable by its bulk, much more resistant to the paralysis of war than

[*Written during the first week of the war.]

more developed nations, largely hostile to Western conceptions of political and religious freedom. This fact is obscured, because another fact, the alleged menace of Germany, has taken hold of the public mind. Yet even our present public is capable of realising that a country of 65,000,000, highly civilised, wedged in between hostile States, with a culture that has contributed in the past so much to civilisation, racially allied to ourselves and with moral ideas resembling our own, with a commercial and industrial life that is dependent upon an orderly and stable Europe, is necessarily less of a menace than the Slav hegemony.

But the collective mind as it exists in our age can only see one such fact at a time: in the Crimean War we saw Russian barbarism but not Turkish; in 1914 we can see German barbarism but not Russian. The first step to a better condition in Europe will be some demonstration enabling the collective mind to seize upon a truth so wide and embracing as to render the eclipse of minor facts of little practical importance. Such a demonstration might come with the collapse of credit and industry dragging with it so much of the structure of civilisation, thus making visible the essential unity of European civilisation and the futility of that struggle for purely political domination, which the present war constitutes. A war which the great mass certainly did not desire is accepted passively as inevitable because parties representing the protection of old privileges, attached to an older form of society, can appeal to the momentum of old political conceptions so intimately associated with ideas as to the preponderating need of military power and political domination.

And there is this curious psychological fact. The parties which may be termed the parties of ideas seem to show less capacity for ready movement and effective action in imposing their point of view than do the parties composed of men who have simply taken over old prejudices. The military and chauvinist elements in Parliament and in the press are, numerically perhaps, in a minority. But their effectiveness in

propaganda, in the presentation of their case, has in this crisis been greater than that shown by their opponents. Take the incidents of the last week or two. As soon as the possibility of war became evident, forward sections of the Opposition carried on, with the help of the *Times* and the *Daily Mail* and the allied papers, what was in fact a war propaganda with "a kick and a punch," as the Americans would call it, that swept the inert mass of the country to the point at least of "accepting the inevitable." At that early stage a move was made among small groups on the anti-war side to resist this propaganda with an equal "kick and punch"; but immediately considerations of "not being controversial," "not embarrassing the Government," "not alienating X, Y, or Z," began to paralyse, to some extent at least, the clear, downright expression of opinion hostile to intervention. There seemed to be no general realisation on the peace side that the danger was desperate, that we were on the edge of a volcano; that the war party were not hampered by considerations of "not embarrassing the Government"; and of not being "too controversial." There was thus created a situation in which all the psychological momentum which goes for so much in these things was on the side of war, while the forces which might have been ranged on the side of peace were in large part inert or disorganised.

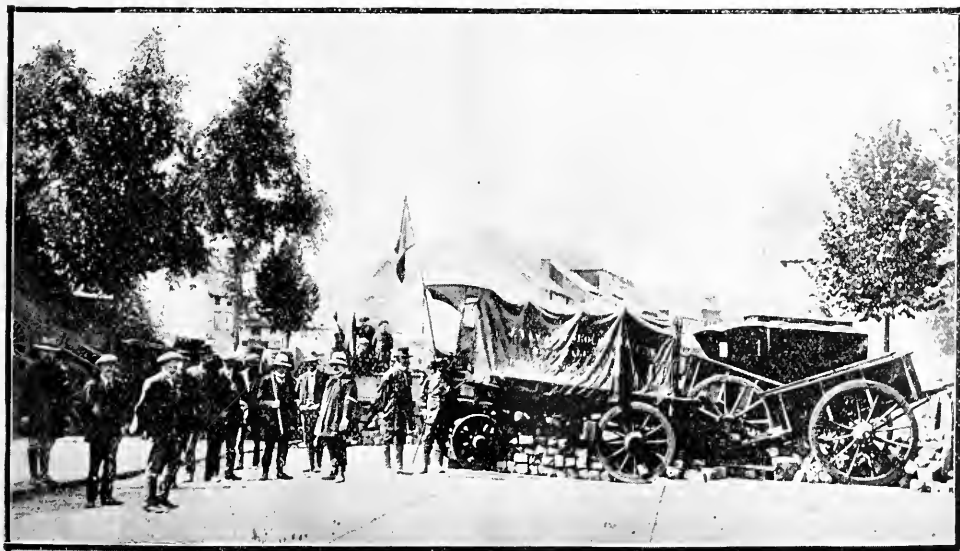
The instance is only worth noting at this early stage after the catastrophe, as bearing upon what the attitude of democrats and pacifists must be if we are to salve anything from the wreck. If such a case for peace as that which this week's situation presented cannot win to itself the element of pugnacity and fight which are put into the opposite case, cannot redirect those elements of human nature to its own cause, then it is incapable of grappling with the problems which will confront it in the years that face us. We who favour peace have suffered in the past from the general impression that good intentions and high aspirations would in some way atone for the absence of the humbler virtues of technical efficiency

in the method and management of propaganda, in the direction and control of the fighting forces.

Perhaps this catastrophe will help us to realise the magnitude of the problem which faces us. Peace is not a section of certain social problems which we have to solve, not one among many. It is the basis of the whole democratic and social problem. Our schemes of social reform must now be shelved. Perhaps they will wait for a generation, perhaps longer. The efforts of many years of social endeavour will be nullified because, instead of so marshalling all the forces of reform as to make them in some measure all parts of the army of peace, we have conceived of anti-war propaganda as a separate and limited task. The problem of peace is neither more nor less than the problem of so laying the foundation of civilised society that a stable and secure super-structure becomes possible. It is all one general interdependent problem. Constructive social work depends upon making peace secure; peace depends upon an educated democracy; the military organisation of States is in the long run fatal to democracy; if democracy is to survive, the general war problem must find solution.

In so far as that problem is one of

change in ideas—and it is mainly that—it is essential that the old fallacies concerning the place and efficacy of force and the nature of political power should not merely be relegated to the background by the preoccupation of the public with other things, but so undermined as to be destroyed. If the old ideas are definitely to pass from politics, a large body of the public must see fairly clearly how and why the arguments that supported those ideas are false. Failing this, it will always be possible to revive the old ideas by some incident like that through which we have passed. The importance of securing the realisation of certain economic and material truths is not the hope of dissuading men from going to war because their bank account would suffer, but of showing that the interdependence of the modern world has made the whole conception of society as a conglomeration of rival States an absurdity, an impossible foundation for our work in the world. What is now happening to the credit system of the world is important in this: that it is a very visible demonstration of the unity of mankind, of the need for confidence and co-operation, if States are to fulfil those functions for which they were created.



A BELGIAN BARRICADE ON THE ROAD TO DIEST.



THE RULER OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE.



M. POINCARE. PRESIDENT OF FRANCE



THE KING OF THE BELGIANS.



THE TSAR OF ALL THE RUSSIAS.

THE RULERS OF THE ALLIES.

WHY ARE WE AT WAR?

The dramatic suddenness with which this war descended upon a horrified world may well cause us to ask why has it come now, rather than last year or next year, or some time in the dim future? The usual answer given is that Germany wanted it, schemed for it, and provoked it. She could easily have done that last year or the year before. European peace has long been a building of cards which the slightest jolt would send crashing to the ground. The Power that gives the first push is the most guilty party, and, in this case at any rate, Austria gave the push which is now involving her in entire ruin.

THE AUSTRO-SERVIAN CRISIS.

We do not think that Germany specially engineered the Austro-Servian crisis for her own ends, but once war had been declared between Serbia and Austria she did think that the long anticipated and inevitable struggle was at hand, and plunged headlong into it, instead of doing her best to again patch things up, as she so often had before. From a purely military point of view, if the Kaiser held the view that an ultimate struggle was inevitable, he was right to strike when he did. The boasted military efficiency and prowess of the German army has proved no empty vaunt, but fortunately German diplomatists have failed consistently throughout.

AN INEVITABLE WAR.

Germany knew, France knew, Great Britain knew, in fact all Europe knew, that, before long, war was inevitable if Germany persisted in her desire for a "place in the sun," for colonial expansion. This was shown clearly when Britain, France and Russia stopped what many people in Great Britain regarded as Germany's legitimate attempts to get a foothold in Morocco. France took the entire territory instead, and Germany retired in high dungeon, and set about building her fleet more diligently than ever. Ask any South American diplo-

matist who this fleet was intended for, and he will at once say: the United States. The Monroe doctrine has prevented Germany occupying the smallest spot in the vast, sparsely-peopled continent in the New World; but South America offered the only possible field left for German expansion. Be that as it may, Germany determined to pursue a policy of colonial expansion, and the other great Colonial Powers determined to prevent her getting any new land. We have on the one hand an earnest wish for oversea possessions, and on the other an equal determination to prevent its acquisition. If both persist an ultimate clash of arms becomes inevitable.

THE BALANCE OF POWER.

To understand the delicate piece of machinery known as the "Balance of Power" in Europe, one must have some knowledge of the various alliances and treaties which control it. There are two main alliances and many secondary ones. In addition there are two treaties, made long ago, which bind the Great Powers to some extent, although in all such cases present interest has a great deal to do with their observance. The Triple Alliance and the Triple Entente have hitherto kept the balance even in Europe, but recent events weakened the former and strengthened the latter, thus upsetting the delicate machinery somewhat. These two alliances were fully explained in our August number, and also in Stead's War Book, No. 1.

ITALY'S POSITION.

Italy is in a peculiar position, having alliances with Austria and Germany, and also with France and Great Britain. National sentiment in Italy is strongly anti-Austrian. Only sixty years ago the people were groaning beneath the Austrian yoke, and although in 1859 the kingdom of Italy came into being, many Italians remained under Austrian rule. Thus far Italy has kept out of the struggle, but the moment she sees Austria defeated she will come in so that she may share in the spoils

some of which must have already been promised her.

THE NEUTRALITY TREATIES.

The other treaties which have a direct bearing on the present conflict were concluded, one on November 15, 1831, the other on May 11, 1867. The first was made when Belgium became an independent State, the second guaranteed the neutrality of the Grand Duchy of Luxembourg. The clause in the first-named, which is vital, is Article VII., which says:—

Belgium, within the limits specified in Articles I., II. and IV., shall form an independent and perpetually neutral State. It shall be bound to observe such neutrality towards all States.

Article XXV. said:—

The Courts of Great Britain, Austria, France, Prussia and Russia guarantee to His Majesty the King of the Belgians the execution of all the preceding articles.

The chief clause in the Luxembourg Treaty was Article II.:—

The Grand Duchy of Luxembourg, under guarantee of the Courts of Great Britain, Austria, France, Prussia and Russia, shall henceforth form a perpetually neutral State. The high contracting parties engage to respect the principle of neutrality stipulated by the present article.

It will be seen, therefore, that the neutrality of Luxembourg was more definitely set forth than that of Belgium. Great Britain has, however, always considered herself more bound to uphold the neutrality of Belgium than that of the Grand Duchy, naturally so because it was to her interest to do so; she did not want any great Power at Antwerp or on the Straits of Dover. Luxembourg has no coast line.

BELGIUM AND GREAT BRITAIN IN 1870.

When the Franco-Prussian war broke out in 1870 Great Britain, although satisfied with the assurances of the belligerents that they would respect the neutrality of Luxembourg and Switzerland, demanded more than assurances about Belgium, and entered, first into a treaty with the Prussian King, undertaking to make common cause with him against France if the latter entered Belgium,

and, two days later, made one with the French Emperor, undertaking to make common cause with him against Prussia if the latter violated Belgian neutrality. The terms of the two treaties are identical, except, of course that the contracting parties are different. This seems to indicate that Great Britain did not regard the Treaty of 1831 as being in itself sufficient guarantee to secure Belgian territory from violation. It also showed she was prepared to go to war if necessary to protect Belgium's neutrality. Germany, of course, was fully aware of this. Now Governments, like great corporations, have no bowels of compassion, and nations do not go to war for pure sentiment only, unless it happens to go hand in hand with interest. Great Britain rightly went to war to defend Belgian territory, but, equally rightly she was not prepared to go to war to protect the territory of Luxembourg. The latter was not of vital importance to anyone in Europe, whilst it was vital for Britain to prevent Germany getting a foothold on the North Sea, just opposite her coasts. To prevent this, and to keep an eighty-year-old promise to Belgium, Britain went to war.

THE TRIGGER WHICH DISCHARGED THE GUN.

Ostensibly, of course, the whole trouble arose over the assassination of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand, but, so far as Austria was concerned, the demand that Serbia should punish her nationals concerned in the murder was merely a pretext, a peg on which to hang a settled policy of aggression. Had there been nothing but the punishment of conspirators at stake Austria would never have started hostilities within a couple of days of making her demands. The real reason is Salonika! This sounded the knell of Austrian industrial supremacy in King Peter's kingdom, and meant that with the world's markets open to her Serbia would develop rapidly into a powerful State. Add to this the fact that Russia supported Serbia, and you need not look further for reasons why Austria wanted to crush Serbia before that State got too

strong. It was infamous, of course, that Austria would risk a European war in order to keep Serbia under her thumb. At the same time, her successful action when she annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina in 1908 may have made her think that she could again act in defiance of European opinion.

THE GODS MADE MAD.

It was, of course, impossible to localise the war to Austria and Serbia once Russia began to mobilise. Austria is, of course, the guilty party. Still, had Russia not decided to help Serbia the other nations would have held aloof. Once she drew her sword the other Powers were forced automatically into war. Germany might have compelled Austria to withdraw from her position had she desired it, although to back down, after having gone so far, would have given the *coup de grace* to German influence in the unquiet Balkans. One can follow to some extent the causes which made the Kaiser decide for war, but, when we come to look at his actions, once war was inevitable the only comment we can make is: *Quem Deus vult perdere prius dementat*.

A GERMAN VICTORY HAD ENGLAND HELD HER HAND.

With England neutral, Germany was pretty certain of success. Even if she had agreed not to harry the north-east coast of France or to interfere with French shipping, she would have swept France off the other seas, and have preserved her own supply routes. Great Britain's attitude showed that there was a strong desire on her part to remain out of it, and yet the Kaiser did the one thing which he must have known would inevitably force her to go in. That her leaders were glad of the opportunity thus given makes the Kaiser's blunder all the greater. Ultimately there was bound to be a struggle between Great Britain and Germany, and now was obviously the time to settle it. Britain's position, with France beaten flat, and

Russia held back, would have been intolerable. But there was clearly a very strong feeling in Great Britain that the Austrian, Servian, Russian, German, French struggle was none of our business, and enough influential men held this view to have prevented Great Britain going in had it not been for Belgium. It needed the violation of Belgian territory to overcome this opposition, and to force Great Britain into the struggle before it was too late.

MILITARY DIPLOMATISTS.

Why the Germans should have practically invited us to do so is inexplicable. Perhaps the reason may be found in the consistent policy the Kaiser has followed recently of appointing military officers to diplomatic posts. A diplomat requires years of careful training and much experience ere he can truly serve his country. A military man lacks both training and experience. He is usually utterly unfitted for a post which requires above all things tact and *savoir faire*. Appointed by the Kaiser's clique, these military diplomatists no doubt told the Kaiser what he wanted to be told. If they had not they would have been recalled.

A DIPLOMATIC MUDDLE.

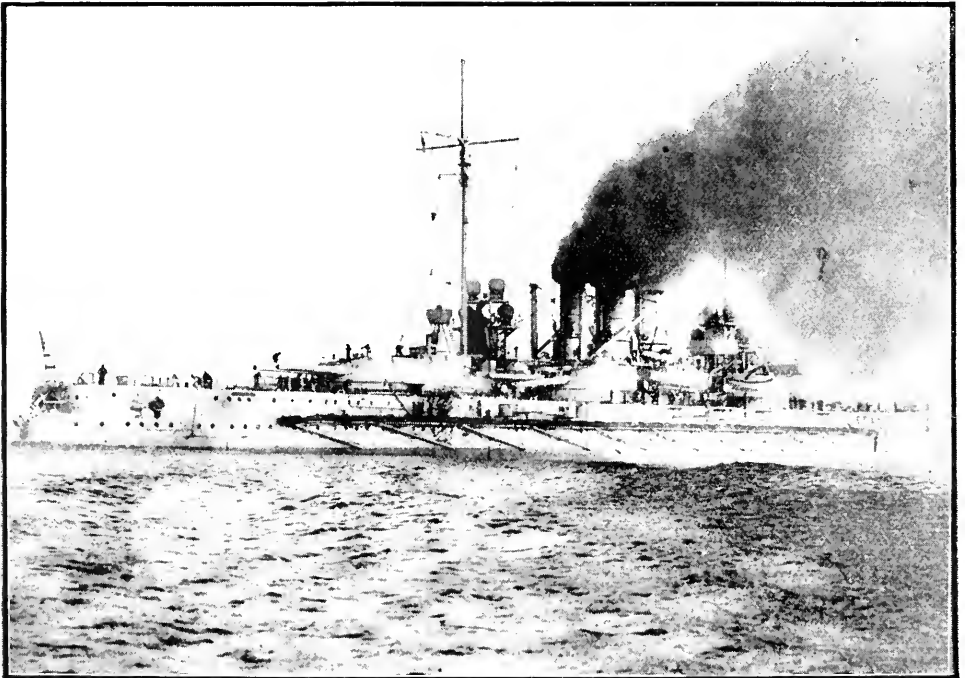
He sent them to Belgium, to Holland, to Switzerland, to Denmark, to cultivate a friendly feeling there towards Germany. They probably told him that the Belgians would not refuse his offer of indemnity if they allowed his troops to cross their territory, that Holland would throw in her lot with the Fatherland, that Britain would do nothing. He must have believed this, or he must have been mad, and whatever one may say of him we must admit that for thirty years he has shown himself the most capable ruler in Europe. His army has demonstrated itself a splendid fighting machine, his diplomatists have proved themselves hopelessly inefficient and useless. Fortunate for us it is that this was so.



SCHILLER.

HUMBOLDT.

Statues of two great Germans in Berlin.



THE LATEST GERMAN DREADNOUGHT, THE HELIGOLAND.

FRIENDS OF THE GERMAN PEOPLE ON THE WAR.

For many years in England and Germany a consistent effort has been made to bring about a better understanding between the two peoples, and this steady work was beginning to bear excellent fruit. This war wrecked all the hopes of those who dreamed of an *entente cordiale* between the two nations, which are, after all, the most similar and closely related in Europe. It is of peculiar interest, at this time, to read what some of these men have to say on the situation. It will be noticed that practically all emphasise the fact that we are fighting, not the German people, with its long record of magnificent achievement in science, literature, philosophy and industry, but the military autocracy which has dominated the Germans for so long that they utter no protest when they are dragged into a war the causes of which can have no vital interest to them whatever. There will without doubt be great danger after the war is over that militarism will be established in Great Britain. It is to the type of men, whose opinions follow, that we must look to, to prevent such a catastrophe. As a writer in the *New Age* says: "We look upon our volunteers, our soldiers, and our sailors with a favourable but not a worshipful eye. We are determined, if we read our countrymen aright, to crush

Germany because Germany is a menace to our civilisation; but we are even more determined not to allow Prussian militarism to be established among us at home when we have helped France and Russia to stamp it out abroad.

Mr. H. W. Massingham is the brilliant editor of the *Nation*. He was for several years the editor of the *Daily Chronicle*, and achieved a great reputation by his "Notes in Parliament." He went through the war between Greece and Turkey, and had great influence in the Greek camp. Mr. F. H. Stead assisted W. T. Stead for many years on the English *Review of Reviews*. He was largely responsible for the agitation which compelled the Liberal Government to grant old age pensions. He fostered the visits of German workmen to England, and English workers to Germany, and organised the remarkable trip of the English Labour Members of Parliament to Germany a few years ago. Mr. A. G. Gardiner has had a distinguished career, and as editor of the *Daily News* did much to promote feelings of goodwill between Germans and Englishmen. Many who hold similar views to these men, will, we are sure, be glad to know how they regard the present state of affairs.

WHAT WE ARE FIGHTING FOR.

BY H. W. MASSINGHAM.

I think those of us to whom the idea of a European war, and of our country taking part in it, has brought a measure of personal distress which exceeds even our private griefs, must say with frankness what is in their minds. I confess

that Sir Edward Grey's speech left me unconvinced and hostile on the subject of our individual intervention, and that my ultimate reserves as to policy remain. But I must say, too, and publicly, that the reading of the White Paper

produced a tremendous revulsion. Things being what they were, engagements standing as they stood, the character of the ruling power in Germany being revealed for what it was, nations being subject to their engagements and line of action which do actually influence and control them, I could not resist the evidence that we were being forced into war. What could we say or do? Germany's final motives are not discoverable in this hour of haste and obscurity. Apparently, judging from Sir Edward Goschen's impression, her governing men had completely lost their heads. They were ruled by a mixture of fear and pride such as exhibits the human mind in a state of complete disablement from reasonable action. But for us at least they offered nothing. They called on us, knowing well our moral relationship to France, to abandon her to dismemberment outside Europe. They summoned us also to witness and consent to the possible dismemberment of Holland and Belgium. Could we sign such a compact? I cannot answer "Yes."

The die has been cast. Who cast it? Apparently one of the least intelligent and moral groups in the world. With what result? To give over Europe to the temporary control of such influences. A grievous, a terrible, conclusion. Religion, science, art, literature all voiceless and powerless. Ruthless, senseless force—tearing up treaties, disregarding neighbourliness, and every decency and every nobility of life—in supreme control. What did the Kaiser, a man not insensible to such influences, mean by abandoning them? All that one can say is that his cult of physical power has led him that path, and that to his loss of equilibrium we must attribute, in the first and the second place, the calamities of the hour. We need not take mean or spiteful views. Germany was frightened, and fear is a bad and a mad guide. She had on her the always incalculable fear that the unknown and hardly measurable power

of Russia imposes on every nation in turn. But she was clearly in the hands of men of a low intellectual and moral type, to whom, in the circumstances of the hour, had been given complete power of disposing of the nation's destiny.

Here is, I think, the crucial fact of the hour. Let me turn to one or two more hopeful auspices.

It is all but clear that Germany will be beaten. For that issue we must, I think, say *Deo Gratias*. Best of all is the circumstance that the real defeat of Goliath will come from the hands of the David of whose prowess no one but a few admirers of the genius of General Brialmont took very great account. Thus the weak things of the world have been chosen to confound the great. A small nationality has arisen to prove to the world, at a moment when material calculations appear to rule it, that spiritual force counts, and that great, mechanically cemented Empires (and though Germany at heart is more than that) may well go down before it. This is Russia's warning, as well as Germany's. If she does not heed it, and if we fail of prudence in the re-settlement of the European question, this invaluable moral lesson may be lost. Heaven grant that it may not be so!

One other point. Our own country is doing well, and showing a far greater seriousness, capacity for endurance, and self-sacrifice than many of us expected. It is early times yet, and trials may come. But the stuff of the nation seems excellent. We shall win; probably without great losses. German success cannot come, for all the circumstances and aids to success are wanting. Then indeed we must act with the utmost prudence and firmness. If we do well, a new Europe, possibly even a disarmed or a lightly armed Europe, may accrue from a compact among those Powers whose capacity for civilisation is sufficiently developed. For that end let us all work, while we strive to secure the success of our arms and a speedy and not exasperating end to the war.

ENGLAND AT WAR WITH GERMANY.

BY F. HERBERT STEAD, M.A.

MY SECOND FATHERLAND.

Germany is my second fatherland. As a youth I studied theology in four German Universities. There I formed some of the dearest friendships which God ever gave me. I owe more than I can express or calculate to the German teachers at whose feet I sat or whose printed wisdom I read. During the last dozen years I have enjoyed the public hospitality of a dozen of the leading cities of Germany. And everywhere I have found friends and lovers of England. I am a lover of Germany. I love her country, her cities, her schools. I love above all her warm-hearted people. I admire their scientific training, their consciousness and thoroughness. No one could refuse to love them who has been treated by them as they have treated me.

A DEFENDER OF GERMANY.

So, for more than twenty years, on press and platform, I have stood up for Germany against her detractors. I have not spared the anti-Germans, either with pen or tongue. I have helped to dispel the suspicions they tried to foster. Estrangement between the two peoples, to say nothing of strife, was to me an intolerable thought. But now the thought worse than intolerable has become real. Germany, my beloved Germany, is at war with England. She has verified the worst charges of her enemies. She has put her friends to utter shame. No one can charge me with adopting the immoral principle, "My country, right or wrong!" I have not shrunk from denouncing my country, when, misled by evil counsellors, it waged unrighteous war, and was guilty of international brigandage. The familiar taunt has often been flung at me—"friend of every country but his own." When I knew her to be in the wrong, I did not spare my first fatherland. As little now can I spare my second fatherland.

THE FALL OF GERMANY.

The agony of these first days of August I shall never forget. The very

intensity of the love I bore to Germany made each new lawless act of hers a fresh stab to the heart. Official Germany stood disclosed as the embodiment of the basest immoralities of the Bismarck tradition. She has been throughout the aggressor, with no visible evidence of ethical justification for her aggression. Her acts suggest that she regards ethics in international affairs as a pure irrelevance. From "the mean war on a weak people" which her ally began, to the attack on brave little Belgium, official Germany has gone deeper and deeper into sin. The name of God is often on her lips; but her behaviour and policy combine to form one of the most flagrant instances which this generation has witnessed of the moral negation of God.

ENGLAND'S DUTY.

What was England to do in the face of this frightful spectacle? To those of us who had been lifelong pioneers and propagandists of peace, who had been entrusted with some share in the movement which only last year found enduring expression in the opening of the Palace of Peace at The Hague, the thought of war was utterly hateful. Shall England fight? or shall England stand aside?—the problem was torture alike to reason and conscience. Yet it had to be faced.

The path seems plain now. But to hew it out through a black forest of opposing duties—that cost the agony.

THE IDEAL AND THE FACTS.

The Ideal before us is clear enough—the abolition of all war, the establishment of permanent and universal peace. That is beyond all doubt given us in the revealed Will of God. And the chief fact pointing toward this ideal is the periodically assembling Hague Conference, with its courts of arbitration. The fact most glaringly opposed to the ideal is modern militarism with its millions trained for mutual slaughter, and with Germany now hurling them right and left against peaceful neighbours. But if ever the peace of the world is to be

established at The Hague, it must rest on one secure basis; and that basis is the irrefragable sanctity of international agreements, and above all of international guarantees of neutrality. One of the great hopes cherished for the steady elimination of war is the progressive extension of internationalised areas. As more and more lands are guaranteed by the Parliament of Man assembled at The Hague to be immune from war, the world will advance the more certainly to the goal of settled peace. Whatever tends to make guaranteed neutrality insecure, still more, whatever regards these guarantees as mere paper to be torn asunder at the will of the stronger, is the deadly enemy to the cause of peace.

FORCE DISPLAYED OR APPLIED.

I had long foreseen that as the network of neutralisations was woven more widely the time would come when the lawless elements in the international situation would try to break loose, and that an overpowering demonstration of physical force would be necessary to "keep the fretful realm in awe." I always hoped that the display of force would be sufficient; that a great and practically irresistible League of Peace might put itself behind the judgments and the conventions of The Hague. Yet if the lawless ones disregard the display of force, then unless the whole work of The Hague is to be rendered futile, the force will have to be applied. This crucial moment has arrived far earlier than I had expected; and the crisis is forced, alas! not by barbarous hordes, but by the best instructed nation on the face of the earth—by Germany! She has showed her determination to tear up treaties and to violate guarantees of neutrality without regard to anything but physical force.

LAWLESSNESS RAMPANT.

She is the very apocalypse of Lawlessness. Was she to be allowed to go on her lawless course unchecked? and were we, pledged guardian with her of the neutrality of Belgium, to become lawless too? Were we to prove ourselves as faithless by inaction as Germany by action? Would not our passive acquiescence in the German crime

help to make all that The Hague stands for generally impracticable? Would we not be rejecting and flouting the great opportunity and invitation which Providence has given us in The Hague.

EITHER CHRISTIAN ANARCHISM—

Two alternatives present themselves. We can adopt Christian Anarchism, of the Tolstoyan type, in which there would be no coercive action, no resistance offered to violence of any kind, even that of the ravisher, no army, no navy, no police, no compulsion of man by man. This is an arguable position. It has much to say for itself. It will have more to say for itself as the world advances nearer to the Sermon on the Mount and to the Kingdom of God. It is consistent and can be respected. To stop short of that and say, "To use the truncheon of the constable is Christian, but to use the bayonet of the soldier is not Christian," is to my mind inconsequent in logic and morals. If the guardian of a girl is justified in calling in the police to seize the ruffian who would violate her, surely the guardian of a little nation, pledged to protect her, is not less bound to call in army and navy to prevent violation by a brigand Power.

—OR WAR!

If we decline to accept Christian Anarchism with all its consequences, if we believe nations are here not without the ordering will of God, if we believe that The Hague expresses a real purpose in the mind of God, then we must try to make that purpose effective. We must vindicate in the teeth of the greatest War Lord in the world the sanctity of treaties and the inviolability of neutralised States. We must stop Germany. The path to The Hague and universal peace lies over prostrate Napoleonism. To further, within existing conditions, the Divine Purpose of Peace we must fight Germany. That is the duty resting upon those who shrink from the logical extreme of Christian Anarchism.

NO BLOOD LUST.

But we must fight with peace in our hearts. We must put down lawless force with law-loving force. We shall be tempted, but we must resist the tempta-

tion, to the mere blood-lust of the primeval man. We may not triumph in the sufferings and death of our foes. We have the delicate and difficult moral problem to solve of fighting with love—pained, indignant love, if you will—but still love for our German brothers. Let us remember the Germans whom we have welcomed, who have welcomed us, to cordial hospitalities. Let us think of the Germans who have bowed with us in the hour of prayer, and have shared with us the service of the poor. And when we hear of so many thousand Germans being slain, or sunk under the wave, let us beware of chortling with vindictive joy; let us think that among them are numbers like the Germans we have cherished in the Settlement, true Christian comrades and brothers. Then all gloating will cease.

FIGHTING THE GERMAN PEOPLE'S BATTLE.

Let us to these ends carefully distinguish between the gentle, peace-loving German people and the Prussian military caste which now rules her to her undoing. We have had evil rulers who dragged us into unjust wars and into "methods of barbarism." When we later had our chance we broke them and drove them from the seats of power. The German people will have its chance, too, and then there will be a change. The truculent barbarism that the Zabern incident revealed was repudiated by the elected representatives of the German people; just as before long we may hope the German people will repudiate what is at present being done in its name. England in fighting against the Prussian military caste now in power, is really fighting the battle of the German people. A crushing defeat of the German forces by land and sea would be, next to prayer, the most direct assistance we can render towards the freeing of our German brothers from the yoke of militarism. Let us fight as the liberators not as the haters of Germany. Professor Ragaz writes me that he believes this war will be the downfall of militarism.

OUR SURGICAL TASK.

The international organism is at pre-

sent suffering from the cancerous growth of Prussian Napoleonism. It seems that England along with other surgeons has been called in by Providence to perform the critical operation of cutting out the cancer. Let us set to work as surgeons, not as savages. As the surgeon operating on an individual does not howl with delight or go Mafficking at every successful movement of his knife, or gloat over the blood that is shed, but pursues his difficult and it may be dangerous work with firmness, skill, and kind thought for the patient, so should we, as God's surgeons, perform our disagreeable duty on the body politic of our German kinsmen. The cynic will smile at this "counsel of perfection." But it is a perfection we must strive after alike in the bitterness of defeat and in the elation of victory.

WELL BEGUN.

England has begun the war in a noble spirit of self-repression and self-sacrifice. Probably no war ever commenced with such thoughtful provision and loving care for the needs of the poor. The cause is perhaps the noblest for which any war could be waged—the vindication of the only basis of settled peace. We must keep our souls at the level at which we have started. We want so to conduct the war that when it is over there will be the smallest legacy of hatred and the readiest invitation to love. We may hope for a yet more signal revelation of the healing grace of God if we wage this war in the spirit of the Christian surgeon.

GOOD OUT OF EVIL.

Even "through the thick darkness God's Kingdom is hastening." Already out of the evil great good has come. The Kaiser's lawlessness has united Ireland, has brought all classes and parties together as they have never been brought together before, and promises to unify the British Empire. It may do much to unify even the whole English-speaking race. We have a terrific ordeal before us, but if we go through it in the spirit of resolute brotherhood the chastening will be for our good and the good of mankind. "The Lord reigneth; let the people tremble." "The Lord reigneth, let the earth rejoice."

THE WAR AND THE SPIRIT OF THE NATION.

BY A. G. GARDINER.

There is one beam of light in the general darkness. We are embarked on the greatest war this nation has ever been engaged in, but we are embarked on it in the right spirit. The nation is united in one thought and one object as, perhaps, it has never been united before; but it is notably free alike from panic and hatred. This is not a war of peoples, but of despots and diplomatists. It is, we may hope, the last supreme struggle of the old dispensation against the new. It is the twilight of the War Gods.

Let us be quite clear in our minds as to the real enemy. We have no quarrel with the German people. In all the centuries we have never fought them before though we have often fought by their side. They are allied in blood and in genius to our own race, and our debt to them in all the spheres of science, art, and civilisation is not less than their debt to us. With the growth of commerce they have become our greatest customers among all foreign nations, and the time will come when they will be our customers again. Let us remember this now when the lot of many Germans in this country, people who have lived honourably amongst us for many years, will be hard to bear unless we have some sense of chivalry to helpless victims of the war.

No, it is not the people with whom we are at war. It is the tyranny which has held them in its vice—the tyranny of personal government, armed with the mailed fist, the tyranny of a despotic rule countersigned by Krupp's. The sword of Zaborn is two-edged—one is turned against the world, the other, and the sharpest, against the German people. In this war we are engaged in fighting for the emancipation of Germany as well as for the liberties of Europe.

A SEA-CHANGE.

This thought explains the absence of those shallower manifestations of popular frenzy which are so familiar in times of war. Perhaps, too, the peril is too

near and too vast to permit of those manifestations. Certainly the temper of the people is singularly sober and restrained. It is true that as you pass through Trafalgar-square and Piccadilly circus at midnight you may see great crowds and hear them cheering apropos of nothing; but this is harmless, and does not reflect the general mind. The main impression is of a people strangely united, possessed of one purpose that makes all other thoughts its slave.

It is almost with an effort that we recall what we were talking about so furiously when this thing came upon us. The word "Ulster" seems to be only the echo of

"Old, unhappy, far-off things
And battles long ago."

You go into the House of Commons in these days and you are puzzled at the strange peace that prevails. Gone are all the familiar savageries of question time, the fierce debates, the bitter jibes, the scornful laughter. Even the habitual indignation of Sir Clement Kinnloch-Cooke at the wickedness of the Government has subsided, and Lord Winterton is at rest. Mr. Lloyd George relates how generously Mr. Chamberlain has come to his help, and Mr. Chamberlain says how heartily he is in agreement with everything that Mr. George has done. Strangest of all is the scene when Mr. Redmond rises and tells of the loyalty of Ireland, of the valour of its volunteers, and of its readiness to relieve the Government of all trouble of defence. There is a storm of cheering from every quarter of the House, and it seems as if in a moment, at one breath of real danger, at the call of a common cause, the Irish question has vanished.

IN THE HOUSE.

Never in history has there been such a House of Commons. All controversy is hushed and the machine works with a swiftness and smoothness that leaves the oldest Parliamentary hand gasping

with astonishment at the miracle. If anyone rises to ask a question the whole House seems indignant. You feel that if he were to go much further and attempt to obstruct he would be taken out and shot by the unanimous verdict of the Chamber. Votes of a hundred millions pass without challenge. The railways are taken over by the State at a stroke of the pen. Laws affecting the most intimate and vital affairs of everyday life are passed while you wait—literally while you wait. We are having lessons in social legislation that will never be forgotten and Sir Frederick Banbury himself is silent.

The spectacle that we have witnessed almost daily during this week is unexampled in the annals of Parliament. A Minister rises, introduces a Bill, say, for delay in payment of all our debts, moves the second reading, sits down. The Speaker rises, reads the title of the Bill, adds, "Those in favour say 'Aye.' . . . The 'Ayes' have it," and descends from the Chair to the floor. The Sergeant of Mace advances from the end of the Chamber, bows twice, removes the mace, returns to his seat, and the House is in Committee. The Chairman of Committee rises, reads the first Clause—"Those in favour say 'Aye'—the 'Ayes' have it"—reads the second Clause—"Those in favour, etc."—and so on to the end, and the Bill is through Committee as rapidly as it can be read. Back comes the Sergeant, and restores the mace. The Speaker resumes his place, murmurs "Say 'Aye'—the 'Ayes' have it," and the Bill is through the House, and on its way to the House of Lords, whence it returns with an expedition quite startling to a Liberal Government.

ONE PEOPLE.

But indeed there is no Liberal Government to-day. There is only one party in the State. The Government represents that party, the Tories are as proud as the Liberals of the amazing efficiency and swiftness with which it has met the challenge of an unprecedented emergency. Its confidence and capacity have been of incalculable value to the country at this moment, and it would be safe to say that no Prime

Minister since Pitt has exercised so unchallenged an authority as Mr. Asquith wields to-day. I said long ago that he is a man who is always greater than the occasion. The greatest of all occasions has come, and finds him still the master.

NO BOASTING.

It is this confidence that one finds everywhere—confidence quite free from boastfulness or Jingoism, touched rather with sadness at the wickedness and misery of this measureless crime, but resolved at whatever cost to meet and overthrow the menace of militarism. "The men are splendid," said Buller on a famous occasion. We can say to-day that the spirit of our people is splendid. I do not suggest that we are exceptional. The news that comes from France and from Germany tells of a quiet heroism in the presence of peril not less imminent. There are exceptions, of course, for there are dregs everywhere. But I speak of the general spirit. There is no "à Berlin" bombast this time in any land—only the feeling that some power of darkness has thrust this down upon the world, and that it must be faced without fear and without boasting. One hears from all parts of the Continent the same story of parting for the wars—the scenes in the churches, by the wayside, at the stations. The very soil of Europe seems wet with the tears of brave sons and brave mothers. But nowhere do we hear of panic. Nor do we hear of bitterness. The peoples do not hate each other, though they have been sent out to kill each other.

THE ROMAN MOTHER.

But we are different from the Continental peoples, less habituated to the presence of the shadow of war. It is more than a century since the fear of invasion fell on us, and the coming of the terror might reasonably have tried our nerves. But the country has kept its head, its temper, and its courage. Its spirit is well illustrated by an incident which Mr. T. W. Russell related to me recently—an incident which deserves to companion that of the Roman mother. He was speaking to a woman whose three sons are on battleships in

the North Sea, and he ventured to speak words of sympathy and comfort to her. "I wish I had ten sons," she answered, "and that they were all fighting for their country." Our sons will be all right while they have such mothers.

And not the least gratifying feature is the cheerfulness with which financial and business disasters, which in normal times would seem so overwhelming, are being borne. I know men who have been ruined by the crisis, whose business is with the Continent, and who have seen the fabric of their prosperity collapse into the dust; but you would not know it from their bearing. We are on a new plane of values. We find that we do not worry about the toothache when the house is on fire, that material losses count little when the deeper things of life are at stake. The nation is sounding the great waters, and learning very unusual lessons—lessons of mutual dependence, of self-sacrifice, of helpfulness and tolerance and goodwill. We are not so petty as we were yesterday. Perhaps some of us run to the banks to get heaps of gold, and some of the grocers to buy up sacks of flour, but if so we are rather ashamed of the fact, and would not care for it to be known. But for the most part we are sensible, and are concerned for once with something bigger than the safety of our own skins and the fulness of our own pockets.

PERIL AHEAD.

We have begun well, but we must remember that the real trial is yet to come. The collapse of Continental business has plunged armies of clerks and workmen into the ranks of the unemployed. The distress has come swiftly, and in quarters which are usually immune. I hear at this moment of the head of an electrical business, whose trade has been chiefly with Germany. His office is closed, his clerks discharged, his workmen gone, and he himself is vainly seeking employment. We have dark days ahead. And there are other things that may try us. The cry

of "The Russians in Germany" has already created panic in Berlin. Let us remember that we may even have bad news from the North Sea. It is not likely, but all things are possible, and we must steel ourselves for the chances of war, and remember that cool heads and good courage are never so necessary as when the peril is greatest.

AFTER THE TEMPEST.

Meanwhile it is not a bad thing to try and see beyond the tempest. I like the story which I heard this week of the old lady who was told of the declaration of war, and of all the horrors that were imminent. She was a sweet old lady whose face wore that look of serenity that only comes with evening. She heard the news and then looked up and said, "God reigns." It is a difficult saying at this moment, hard to believe when the armies are rushing to battle, and Europe is being drenched in blood, and the Christian nations are claiming the same God whom they have outraged as their champion in arms.

But if we take long views we may still find room for the old lady's faith. The nations of Europe have groaned under the tyranny of armaments, and have groaned in vain. Perhaps some such vast cataclysm as this was necessary to release the world from the monstrous bondage of the past. We have seen in these days, as by a flash of lightning, the profound truth that credit and Krupps, the rule of force and the reign of civilisation, cannot co-exist. We may have armaments or we may have credit, but we cannot have both. The world may be civilised or the world may be savage, but the world cannot be both. Barbarism, we may hope, is fighting its last battle. It is the biggest battle of all, but that is the way of things. The swollen monster of armaments should collapse with his own weight. Civilisation will never tolerate the erection of his altar again. Then the world will be free.

WAR AND HUNGER.

WHAT IT MEANS TO FRANCE.

"People in England, who have no experience in conscription, can have no idea of what war means to France; the breaking up of every family; the departure of father, son and brother, leaving behind young children and penniless women," says the Paris correspondent of the *Economist*. "In several towns and villages I have just seen the pitiful effect in the homes of the people of the mobilisation order. But it cannot be disguised that the terrible war of 1870-1 still rankles in the mind of every French family, and even the most peaceful are consoled by the hope of the revenge for which they have waited so long."

THE HUNS AT OUR GATES.

"Though as a nation we have neglected military preparations in time of peace," says the *Daily Mail*, "now, in time of war and with millions of men locked in savage combat barely a hundred miles from our shores, we are going as placidly to and fro as if we lived in ordinary days, as if the Huns were not battering at the very gates."

"With us, too many of them are looking on at cricket matches or lolling at seaside resorts with the women and children."

A FIGHT FOR FREEDOM.

"At present the average working man sees little more in the war than a fight over a violated pledge of neutrality," says the *Pall Mall*, suggesting that a brief statement of Britain's case should be widely distributed. "Even as such he approves of it. But once let him realise how infinitely more than that it is—how it is a fight for the freedom of the minds and bodies of all men, and with what brutality it has been forced upon Europe—and we are convinced that his approval will soon become the determined thing it was a hundred years ago, when another tyranny had to be swept away."

ORGANISING AGAINST HUNGER.

"It is inevitable that our thoughts in this crisis should go always to 'the front'—that far flung battle line, extending literally to every quarter of the

globe, that it is Lord Kitchener's special task to maintain, and to be perpetually strengthening from the rear," says Mr. Sydney Webb. "But what we did not, some of us, at first realise is that, in this mighty Armageddon, it becomes absolutely essential that the whole nation, from Cornwall to Caithness, from Kent to Kerry, should in a very real sense also be organised for a state of war."

"For this is no mere frontier fighting. Victories in the field or enemy's ships sunk in the North Sea will not save us from having to sue for an ignominious peace if millions of families in London and Lancashire, and along the whole east coast, meanwhile find themselves starving. Absolute hunger knows no law, and will not long continue patriotic!"

"During the whole of this tearful time the Government has had to realise that the war must perforce be waged on two fronts. Half the Cabinet is virtually now a Standing Committee on the military, naval and diplomatic operations. Half is equally engaged, day by day, on the no less imperative task of ensuring that the nation shall be fed. These are the two fronts on which the war is being waged."

WOMEN SUFFERERS FROM THE WAR.

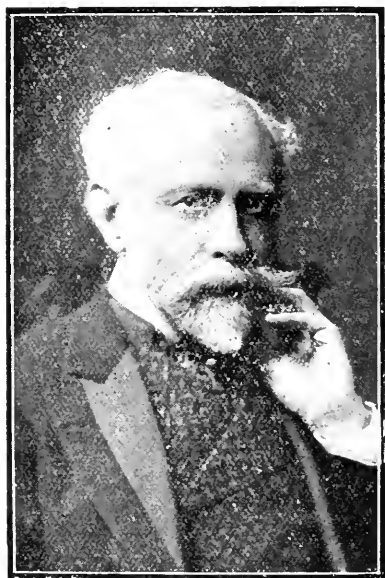
The Women's Social and Political Union, the militant society, state that they hold that it is the duty of the Government to guarantee either paid employment or relief in the shape of food and other necessities to all women impoverished by the war, whether these women are the dependents of soldiers or are wage-earners thrown out of employment. "The W.S.P.U. calls upon the Government to assume this full and direct responsibility for the maintenance of impoverished women for two reasons. Firstly, because women are suffering from a war which, as voteless citizens, they could neither make nor prevent; and, secondly, because at this national crisis the only way to prevent the physical degeneracy of the next generation is to preserve the health of women, the actual and potential mothers of the nation."



M. LEON BOURGEOIS,
French Statesman.



M. DELCASSE,
Minister of Foreign Affairs.



M. PAUL CAMBON,
French Ambassador in London.



M. HANOTAUX,
Former Minister of Foreign Affairs.

MEN WHO HAVE MOULDED FRENCH POLICY.

CATECHISM ON THE WAR—III.

The first Catechism on the War appeared in our August number, the second in our September-October number. Both these numbers are entirely sold out. The Catechism has, however, been reprinted as STEAD'S WAR BOOKS, Nos. I. and II. 3d. each.

Q.—What does Germany consist of?

A.—The present Empire was created on April 16th, 1871. It consists of four kingdoms, six grand duchies, five duchies, seven principalities, three republics, and one reichland (Alsace-Lorraine).

Q.—How does the Kaiser come to be Emperor of Germany?

A.—Because he is the King of Prussia. By the terms of the Constitution of 1871 all the States of Germany form an eternal union for the protection of the realm, and the care of the welfare of the German people. The supreme direction of the military and political affairs of the Empire is vested in the King of Prussia, who, in this capacity, bears the title of Deutscher Kaiser.

Q.—How is Germany governed?

A.—The Emperor represents the Empire internationally, and can do pretty much as he likes in that sphere. He has little say though in local internal legislation of the Empire. This is controlled by the Reichstag, the members of which are elected by the people—like our House of Representatives—and by the German Senate, or Bundesrat, whose members are appointed by the various States. There are 58 members in all in this Upper House, 17 of whom are appointed by Prussia, six by Bavaria, four by Saxony, four by Wurtemberg, four by Baden, three by Hesse, two by Mecklenburg-Schwerin, two by Brunswick, and all the other States, except Alsace-Lorraine, appoint one member each.

Q.—How many members are there in the Reichstag?

A.—397, about one for every 132,000 inhabitants. They are elected by ballot for five years. Prussia sends no fewer than 236 members to this House. They receive only £150 for the session, and £1 is deducted for every day a member is absent! They have free passes over

the railways, but only when the House is in session, not during recess.

Q.—Does the Reichstag legislate for the whole of Germany?

A.—Not for the individual States. These are supreme within their own borders, just as the States are here. There is a uniform system of law courts throughout the Empire, and there is a uniform code of commercial and criminal law, but the courts are subject to the States, which also appoint the judges. Each of the States has its own constitution and its own hereditary ruler. As mentioned before, three of them are republics.

Q.—How is the Empire financed?

A.—Pretty much as the Commonwealth is. That is to say, it draws its revenue from customs, excise and post office. It also takes the revenue from the railways, although these are controlled by the individual States through which they run. In addition, the States pay a "Federal contribution" of so much per head. The rate is fixed annually in the Imperial Budget. It averages about 3s. 6d.

Q.—How is Alsace-Lorraine governed?

A.—It is what is called a Reichsland or Imperial Land, and is under a Governor-General, called a Statthalter, who is appointed by the Kaiser. There is a Provisional Committee, consisting of 58 members, which attends to local legislation. Four Secretaries of State assist the Statthalter. There is a Council of State, consisting of the Statthalter, the Secretaries of State, the Chief Justice, the Attorney-General, and eight or twelve other members appointed by the Emperor; of these three are really the nominees of the Provincial Committee. It will thus be seen that Alsace-Lorraine has not much say in anything except purely local matters.

Q.—Which are the three Republics in Germany?

A. The three Free Towns, the old leaders of the Hanseatic League, Lübeck, Hamburg, and Bremen. Hamburg is unique in that it provides in its constitution that its rulers must be business men. The Senate, which has almost entire executive power, consists of eighteen members; half of these must have studied law or finance, and of the remaining nine at least seven must be merchants.

Q.—What are the Hanse towns?

A.—The three which remained in 1863 were Lübeck, Hamburg and Bremen. By that time, however, the Hanseatic League was little more than a name. Right through the Middle Ages it had upheld the honour of German commerce in the midst of Germany's disunion and internal strife. The League was originally founded to protect the commerce of the Northern Seas against pirates and robbers, who swarmed over sea and land. An alliance was made between Hamburg and Lübeck in 1241 to protect the road across Holstein, which connected the North Sea with the Baltic. A few years later Brunswick joined, and ere long no fewer than 85 towns were embraced. Lübeck became the head of the League, which at that time included Cologne, Breslau, Cracow, Revel, Amsterdam, and practically all the principal towns between these limits. The chief trading centres of the League were in London, Bruges, Novgorod and Bergen. Here they maintained factories, Hansa, or Guildhalls. In London their headquarters was called the Steelyard. These factories were subject to an almost monastic discipline. All the League officers having to be celibates and to live at a common table. As time went on the League had armies and navies, made wars and deposed kings. As the need for protection against pirates diminished, and as the Dutch and English became predominant in the Baltic trade, the power of the League gradually decreased. For over three centuries the League had special trade concessions from England, and the strongest group of alien merchants in London claimed the exclusive enjoy-

ment of many privileges to the chargin of the local traders.

Q.—What is a free port?

A.—A harbour where ships of all nations may enter on payment of moderate dues, and load and unload. Goods may be stored there without paying any duty, and may be re-shipped for export. If admitted for home consumption the usual customs duties must be paid. That is to say, goods for transshipment at free ports remain there in bond, and pay no duty at all. The result of this is that Hamburg, Bremen and Lübeck had all a very large transshipping business.

Q.—If Great Britain went in for tariff reform there would have to be free ports, would there not?

A.—Certainly there would because the transshipping trade of Great Britain is enormous. That is one of the reasons why she does not go in for tariff reform. It cost Hamburg no less than £6,000,000 when the city joined the German Customs Union in 1888, to separate the port for the purposes of free re-shipment of goods, and she had very little to do compared with what would require doing in the British ports. It would probably cost London something like £50,000,000, and Liverpool, Glasgow, Southampton and Cardiff equally huge sums in proportion to their trade.

Q.—Is the Kiel Canal merely used for strategical purposes?

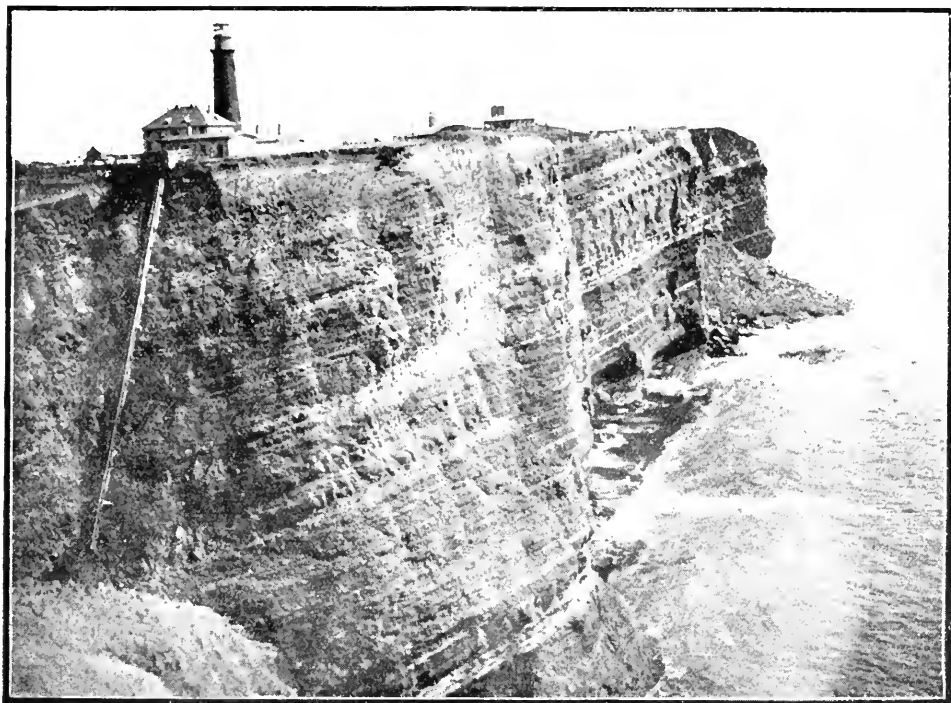
A.—By no means. It is, in fact, the most important artificial waterway in the world so far as trade is concerned. Ten times as many vessels pass through it annually as use the Suez Canal.

Q.—Is Emden the Torpedo Base of the German Navy?

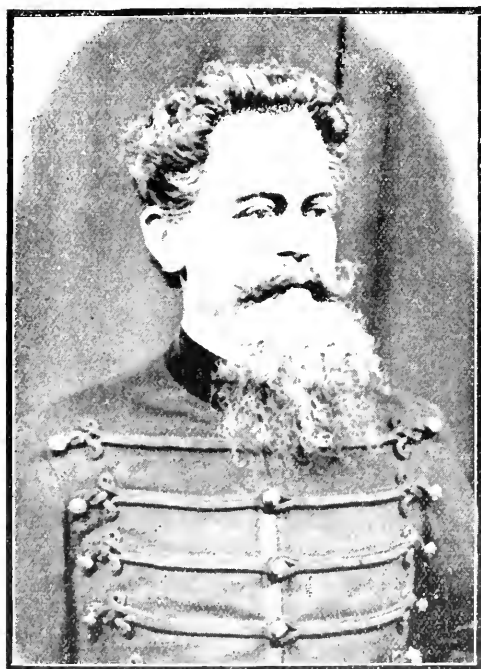
A.—Yes, it is connected with Wilhelmshaven by a naval canal. This makes it possible for torpedo boats and submarines to pass from the Baltic to Dutch waters without ever putting out to sea.

Q.—Are German sailors efficient?

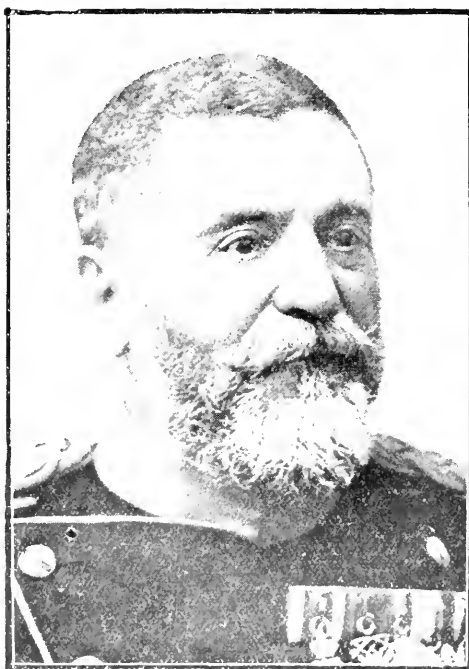
A.—They are supposed to be. Elaborate precautions are taken to keep them free from any diseases which imperil efficiency, and the entire fleet is always in commission. The German's have spe-



HELIGOLAND—GERMANY'S FORTRESS IN THE NORTH SEA.



GENERAL LEMAN.
The heroic defender of Liège.



GENERAL PUTNIK.
Commander of the Servian Army

cialised in torpedo work. The naval personnel is about 34,000, and there is a reserve of 110,000 men.

Q.—How did Germany get Heligoland?

A.—She obtained it in 1890 from Great Britain in exchange for a Protectorate over Zanzibar and Witu in East Africa. Bismarck, who had fallen a few months earlier, denounced the arrangement because it involved the abandonment of the German hopes for a great East African Empire. Since acquiring it Germany has fortified it very strongly, and has almost enclosed it in cement walls to prevent the encroachment of the sea, which was slowly demolishing the island.

Q.—Where is Heligoland situated?

A.—It is in the North Sea, off the mouths of the Elbe and the Weser, 40 miles from Cuxhaven. It consists of two islets, which were connected until 1720 by a neck of land, through which the sea finally broke. The smaller is called the *Dunen-Insel*, and is a quarter of a mile east of the larger *Rock Island*. The former is nothing but a sandbank, protected by groines, but has an anchorage for the largest ships. The large island is just a mile long, its greatest breadth is one third of a mile, and the rock is 198 feet high. The old English batteries were replaced by armoured turrets, mounting guns of heavy caliber. In fact, the island is not unlike an anchored battleship, which cannot be sunk by torpedoes! Some 20,000 people visit the place annually for the sea bathing. There is a theatre, a *kurhaus*, and several hotels. A church crowns the highest point.

Q.—Was Heligoland always British?

A.—No. It was acquired when Great Britain got so many of her overseas possessions, during the Napoleonic wars. Denmark was an unwilling ally of France, as was Holland, and consequently their colonies were taken by the British fleet. She took Heligoland from Denmark in 1807. During that war she took the Cape of Good Hope, Ceylon, British Guiana, the Spice Islands, Java, and a few other little tit-bits from Holland. She returned Java later. The French West Indies came under the

British flag at the same time, as well as Malta, the Mauritius, and various other islands. In fact, during the last two centuries Britain has hardly ever gone to war without obtaining territorial aggrandisement in some portion of the globe. The only two notable exceptions were the war with the United States and the Crimean War. In the early days sea rovers fought furiously for the ownership of Heligoland, as it made a fine base for piratical expeditions.

Q.—What is the strength of a German army corps?

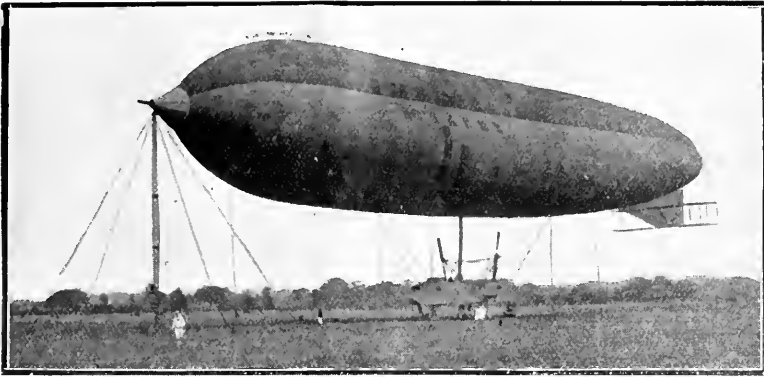
A.—Two regiments of infantry (six battalions) form a brigade, two brigades a division, and two divisions an army corps. To each infantry division is attached an artillery brigade (12 batteries) and a regiment of cavalry (four squadrons). To each army corps four batteries of heavy howitzers, a battalion of rifles and an engineer battalion. A brigade numbers 7000 men, so that an army corps would number 28,000. In time of war, however, a reserve brigade is added to each division, thus making the army corps six brigades, or in all 42,000 men plus artillery, cavalry, etc.

Q.—What are the principal fortresses in Germany?

A.—The first-class fortified places are as follow:—*Konigsberg*, *Danzig*, *Posen*, *Neisse*, *Spandau*, *Magdeburg*, *Kustrin*, *Mainz*, *Ulm*, *Rastatt*, *Metz*, *Cologne*, *Coblence*, *Kiel*, *Strassburg* and *Ingolstadt*. Less important coast fortresses are *Pillau*, *Memel*, *Friedrichsort*, *Cuxhaven*, *Geetsmunde*, *Wilhelms-haven*. Second-class places designed specially for railway protection or mere obstruction are:—*Glogau*, *Glatz*, *Torgau*, *Diedenhofen* (*Thionville*), *Bitsch*, *Wesel*, *Saarlouis*, *Neu Briesach*, *Germersheim*, whilst the *Vistula*, in Eastern Prussia, is defended by special forts called *Vistula passages*, and by *Thorn*, *Graudenz* and *Dirschau*. All the fortresses are connected with each other by underground telegraphs.

Q.—Are there many strategical railways in Germany?

A.—A very large number. In fact, the eastern frontier is a net work of railways, but only three lines cross the frontier into Russia, which has an exceed-



BRITAIN'S LATEST DIRIGIBLE



A MONSTER ZEPPELIN LEAVING LAKE CONSTANCE.

THE MOUSE AND THE LION!

ingly poor railway system, a fact which must seriously handicap her just now. On the western frontier the strategical railways are also much in evidence, and run from the Rhine to the Belgian and French frontiers.

Q. What are the largest towns in Germany?

A. Berlin	2,100,000
Hamburg	953,000
Munich	600,000
Leipzig	507,000
Dresden	555,000
Breslau	520,000
Cologne	520,000
Frankfort	424,000

Q.—What is the cost of a Zeppelin?

A.—It is not known definitely. Count Zeppelin sold one recently to the German Government for £25,000. Great Britain bought a semi-rigid Astra Torres last year for £18,000. Even supposing the Zeppelins cost £100,000 or £250,000, there would be no difficulty in getting the money, as the German Government voted £8,000,000 last year for the purpose of airship construction. The Zeppelins carry a crew of from 30 to 40, can travel 50 to 65 miles an hour, are 500 feet long and 50 feet in diameter. That is almost as long as the "Australia," and as broad as the "Sydney." These craft are armed with small but powerful guns on the platforms below, and also on platforms above the structure.

Q. What is the difference between a Zeppelin and a Parseval?

A.—Most people think all German airships are Zeppelins, but actually the Germans have a large number of smaller non-rigid dirigibles of the Parseval type, similar to those Britain possesses. Put simply, the difference between the two is that the first is a rigid framework of aluminium and light steel into which a large number of separate gas bags are put, the second is a large gas bag to which a car is suspended. In the rigid type cabins and platforms are firmly attached to the framework within which gas bags are stowed; several of the latter might be punctured and lose their gas without the airship falling. In the non-rigid type the car is suspended by wire ropes, and hangs beneath the gas enve-

lope. If this is punctured seriously the whole affair collapses at once.

Q. What are the flags of the Allies?

A. The British Union Jack does not need describing. It is interesting to remember, though, that it is made up of the individual flags of England, Scotland and Ireland, viz., the red cross of St. George on a white ground, the white saltier (a cross running from corner to corner) of St. Andrew on a blue ground, and the red saltier of St. Patrick on a white ground. The French is blue, white and red in vertical stripes. It is called the Tricolour, and was given its present form during the French Revolution by Lafayette. The Russian flag is a blue saltier on a white ground, although the imperial standard is a two-headed eagle on a yellow ground. The Belgian flag is very similar to the French—black, yellow and red, in vertical stripes. The flag of Servia is red, blue and white in horizontal stripes; that of Montenegro being almost identical. The Japanese have a very distinctive emblem—the rising sun.

Q.—And the flags of Germany and Austria?

A.—The Prussian flag is black and white. When the Imperial German flag was adopted in 1871 it was natural that these colours should predominate, and that the eagle, for over 500 years the emblem of the House of Hohenzollern, should appear in it. The ordinary German flag is black, white and red in horizontal stripes. The Austrian flag is red, white and red in horizontal stripes. That of Peru is exactly the same, but the stripes are vertical. Spain, where another branch of the once all-powerful Hapsburgs occupy the throne, have a similar flag, but with yellow in place of the white.

Q.—Many national flags are much alike?

A.—Yes. After a little exposure to wind and weather it is almost impossible to distinguish them. For instance, the Italian differs from the French only in having a green instead of blue stripe; and the Mexican flag is almost exactly the same. The Roumanian flag is easily confused with the Belgian, the only difference being a green instead of

a black stripe. The Bulgarian flag is hardly distinguishable from the Servian upside down, although the former has a green centre strip, and the latter a blue.

Q.—What is a torpedo?

A.—It is a weapon which can travel under water in any given direction by means of self-contained motive power. An ordinary shell is propelled through the air by the force of an explosion in a great gun; a torpedo, on the other hand, is merely launched into the water, and then propels itself towards its goal.

Q.—How big is a torpedo?

A.—The most recent is 18 feet long and 21 inches in diameter. It weighs about three-quarters of a ton, and carries a charge of 250 lbs. of guncotton, enough to blow the whole side out of a battleship. Each torpedo costs over £500.

Q.—Are these weapons accurate?

A.—Thanks to the gyroscope they are almost as certain of hitting the mark as are the big guns. The effective range was at one time about 1000 yards, but the latest can go for four miles at a great speed, up to forty knots. The gyroscope compels them to follow a perfectly straight course once they are fired, and special devices secure their remaining at a consistent depth during the run.

Q.—What is the propelling power?

A.—Compressed air. The old Whitehead torpedo—the original of the type used to-day—was driven by a three-cylinder engine. The turbine principle has recently been applied with splendid results.

Q.—But how does a torpedo hit a distant moving ship?

A.—Once it is fired those who discharged it have no further control, but it follows exactly the direction they have given it, just like an ordinary shell fired through the air. It is not influenced by currents or the motion of the sea. Whether it hits the target or not depends upon the accurate calculation of the speed of the hostile ship. For instance, supposing a torpedo to have a speed of thirty knots, it would travel

2000 yards in two minutes. To hit a ship 2000 yards away on the beam travelling at 20 knots, the torpedo must be discharged at a point 1300 yards ahead of her. If, however, she is actually only going 15 knots, the torpedo will pass 300 yards in front of her. It will thus be seen that whilst a stationary ship has little chance against a torpedo attack, a moving one has a good prospect of escape. An uncanny device recently invented causes a torpedo which goes astern of a moving ship to alter its course directly it feels the wash, and begin to rush round in huge circles, very possibly overtaking and destroying the ship before she can escape.

Q. Does the torpedo actually pierce the side of the vessel?

A.—No. Its war head comes in contact with the side, a steel pin is forced back, ignites a small charge of fulminate of mercury, which explodes the immense charge of guncotton. The explosion, confined by the water, blows a hole through the side of the ship.

Q.—How are warships defended against torpedoes?

A.—Until quite recently torpedo nets were hung all around a ship at anchor. This netting was made of steel, and was suspended from the end of poles protruding some thirty or more feet from the side of the ship. A ship with this "apron" down was at a great disadvantage if attacked by an enemy cruiser or battleship, as quick manoeuvring was quite out of the question.

Q. Is this still the means of defence?

A.—No. The submarine has made the torpedo net obsolete, for it can deliver its attack under the steel curtain, and the best method of avoiding submarine attack is to keep moving quickly. Modern Dreadnoughts rely upon what is called their secondary battery to annihilate torpedo boats and submarines before they can approach within striking distance.

Q.—After an action will there not be a lot of torpedoes floating about?

A.—No. That would be so immensely dangerous to the ships of those who fired them as well as to the enemy's,

that when they have run their course, a special device causes them to fill with water and sink.

Q.—Is Rheims an old city?

A.—It is one of the oldest cities in France. It was the capital of the Remi before they were conquered by the Romans. The Vandals captured it; Attila and his Huns burned it, but it is as the spot where the victorious Clovis was baptised that it lives in history. Because of that event the kings of France were crowned there. Joan of Arc took it from the English, and saw the King crowned in the great cathedral. This is one of the oldest in the world, and has a magnificent facade, admitted to be the finest masterpiece of the sort produced in the middle-ages. Some 100,000 people live in Rheims. It is strongly fortified. The city has special interest to Australians, as it is the chief wool market in France, and an important centre for the combing, carding and spinning of wool, and the weaving of flannel, merino, cloth, and woollen goods generally. Some 25,000 people are engaged in this industry alone. The correct pronunciation of the town is "Wrongss"; we call it "Reems," and the Germans "Rhymes."

Q.—What does Moratorium mean?

A.—It is a word derived from the Latin "morari," to delay, and is the name given to an emergency act of legislation authorising the postponement, for a specified time, of the payment of debts or obligations, and the suspension of specie payments by a Government bank.

Q.—What is meant by war chest?

A.—A large sum of money in actual gold stored up against the time when a nation goes to war. The German war treasure fund is stored at Spandau.

Q.—Who is Norman Angell?

A.—The author of one of the most remarkable books published in recent years. "The Great Illusion" demonstrates that although war is not impossible, it is entirely futile, and shows that it is not the power with the greatest army or the largest navy which enjoys the greatest security, the largest trade,

and has the highest stocks. Norman Angell is the *nom de plume* under which the former editor of the Paris Edition of the London *Daily Mail* hides his identity.

Q.—Who are the Cossacks?

A.—Russian cavalry are generally called Cossacks nowadays, but the name originally described the fugitive serfs whom tyranny or idleness had driven out into the wilderness. Most of them came from Poland, and, in fact, the Poles used to count on their assistance against the Russians. They were obliged to get a living by robbing and pillaging, and were thus called Kazaki, or freebooters, by the Tartars.

Q.—How is Przemyśl pronounced?

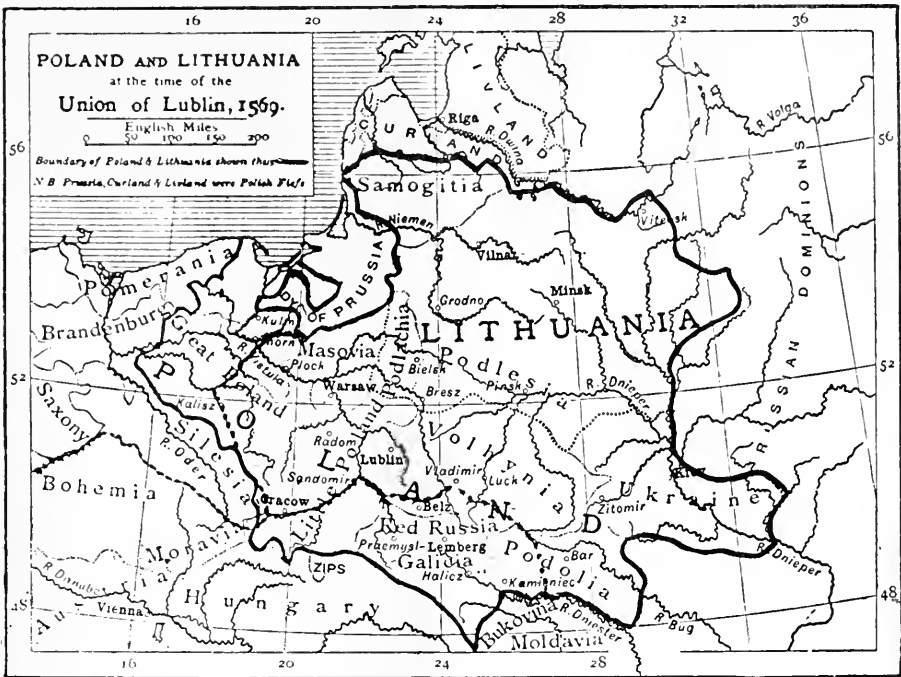
A.—It is, of course, a Polish word, and to English eyes is like many other towns in that part of the world, an extraordinary collection of consonants. This particular fortress, when named by a Pole, sounds rather more like a man sneezing than anything else. Roughly it goes like this: P-tsch-em-sl.

Q.—Why do not the wheels of the huge German guns break through the surface of the roads?

A.—There is no doubt that they would do so no matter how wide the tyres were if not for the fact that each wheel has attached to it a large number of "feet." These are large square blocks. As the wheel revolves each of these treads squarely on the road, so that actually the gun walks along something like a huge caterpillar.

Q.—Are all German cavalrymen called Uhlans?

A.—They usually are, just as all German airships are designated Zeppelins. The Uhlans are, however, a light cavalryman, who has been greatly developed in the German army. It is the business of these men to go far afield, partly as scouts, partly to intimidate and bewilder the enemy by appearing in unlikely places, giving the idea that attack may be expected in any direction. This part of their duty has been rendered much less important owing to the fact that the aeroplane makes surprise attack well nigh impossible. The correct pronunciation of Uhlans is "oolanz."



THE CINDERELLA OF EUROPE.

CAN POLAND EVER RULE ITSELF?

That the greatest despot in Europe should be the man to promise Polish patriots what they have been scheming for during the last hundred years, is one of the most remarkable happenings of the war. Whether their dreams will ever come true, is another matter. Nor should we look this gift horse too closely in the mouth. It was imperative, if the Russian troops were to operate in Poland, that they had friends, even if luke-warm ones, around them, not deadly enemies only too glad of any chance to frustrate every movement and assassinate leaders on all occasions. It is another instance of the reckless and futile diplomacy of Germany. The promise to the Poles comes from their old tyrant, the Tsar, not from the Kaiser.

We recognise at once the difficulties in the way of the latter, if successful, creating again the Kingdom of Poland, because it would involve the Austrian sacrifice of Galicia. On the other hand

the Tsar can easily make the promise, because he clearly proposes to add Galicia and Prussian Poland to his own empire. After he has done this, he will form again a great province, to be known as Poland, within the boundaries of which the Poles will have absolute autonomy and a ruler of their own, although they will, of course, have to acknowledge the Tsar as their suzerain. This was the arrangement made by Alexander I. in 1815, but after a patriotic rising in 1830 Poland was reduced to the position of a Russian province. Nicholas I. at that time established a harsh administration, which made no secret of the intention of the Tsar to entirely destroy the nationality and even the language of the Poles.

The language still exists, and it has been impossible to trample out the national spirit, but the Poles, in that part of their kingdom which fell to Russia, have had a far worse time than

those in Galicia, for instance. The steady and unobtrusive, but nevertheless tenaciously, consistent policy of Prussia in German Poland has very largely transformed Posen into a real German state. The Poles from that part have spread throughout Germany and Europe, with the result that Germany has not really anything like so great a Polish problem as Russia or Austria.

The characteristics of the three nations who between them parcelled out Poland have been accurately shown by their methods in the annexed provinces. The tolerant Austrian rules over a more or less contented and fairly prosperous Galicia; the ruthless Muscovite has created a Poland seething with discontent and incipient revolution, a state of affairs which naturally militates against real prosperity; the thorough Teuton, working on a systematic plan, has largely illiminated the Pole, and brought prosperity and riches to the Polish province, in spite of the violent hatred of the Poles themselves. But, knowing by bitter experience the treatment they are likely to receive from the three great Powers, the Poles incline always to the one which has consistently crushed and trampled on them, because, when all is said and done, the Pole is a Slav, and his temperament and individual sympathies are with the Muscovite rather than with the Teuton, even though the latter's Government has on the whole meted out greater justice to him than that of the former.

It is a curious co-incidence that, just at the time Great Britain was guaranteeing with Russian, France, Austria and Prussia the neutrality of Belgium, she was also protesting strongly to the Tsar for the way in which he was breaking the agreement about Poland, into which all the Powers entered in 1815. To this expostulation the Tsar replied, that, by rising in insurrection against him, the Poles had forfeited their right to that autonomy which Russia had agreed to give them; and made it quite plain that he would tolerate no outside interference with his future administration of the province. The Poles enjoyed fifteen years of autonomy under Russian rule, and have since gone through a bitter

period of repression, lasting over eighty years. It is to be hoped that at last they will reach the goal of their dreams, and will for centuries to come virtually rule themselves. A few years ago everyone would have scouted the suggestion that Russia would have been serious in her promises, but the remarkable awakening of the people throughout the Tsar's domains, their demand for representative Government, and the recognition of their right to have a say in the control of the Empire, causes us to look to the future with high hopes. At last there seems to be a chance of that slumbering volcano of unrest and discontent becoming permanently extinct, quenched by the Ukase of a benignant Tsar.

This is what we all hope, but, alas! the history of Poland does not give us much reassurance. It is true Poland has been great, even dominating, but this has rather been in spite of the Poles than because of them. They were fortunate in again and again having rulers of consummate ability, both in statecraft and on the field of battle. But the best of these were checked, hampered and often destroyed by the meanness of the Polish nobles, and by the intestine strife and jealousy, which from the beginning of history always rent this people. The fire of adversity, the chastening of despotic rule, may have remedied this, but it is very doubtful.

I have known many Poles, charming people, with a vein of sadness in them which makes them doubly interesting, but idealistic and impractical to the last degree. Most of them would have all, or nothing. As all means a kingdom stretching from the Baltic to the Black Sea, to even talk such policy was simply ridiculous. There have always been great patriots amongst the Poles, men and women, quite prepared to sacrifice their all, life itself, in the cause of Polish liberty, but even when successful these patriots could never count upon the loyal support of all the Poles. Even when a John Sobieski, or a Thaddeus Kosciuzko arose, he was ultimately beaten, not by the great Powers around him so much as by his own people.

As one studies the wonderful history of the Poles, reads of the marvellous

exploits of individuals, and realises the extraordinary power the nation once wielded, one wonders why it happened that this people, so successful, so wealthy, so versatile, have absolutely ceased to have any say whatever in European politics. The more one goes into the matter the more convinced one becomes that they themselves extinguished their light, and one has grave doubts as to their ability ever to kindle it again, so that it will once more illuminate Eastern Europe.

As an entirely independent people they will never be successful, as a homogeneous part of a great Empire over which they personally have no control, they may go far. Much as we admire the struggle the Poles have made for liberty, much as we appreciate their literature and their artistic development, we feel that there is something lacking, some undefined thing without which no nation can achieve real greatness. Yet the trouble with the Poles is that they chaff under any control, and are never satisfied unless they are entirely ruling or misruling themselves.

In the early days of Poland Germans and other foreigners had to be imported to supply the necessary middle-class element. The Poles themselves fell into two main classes, agriculturalists and landowners. The former were oppressed by the latter, and the great landowners intrigued constantly against one another. Poland, although in name a Kingdom, was in reality a Republic. At the most critical stages of her development she needed to be ruled by a benevolent autocrat, and insisted on being governed by a Diet, any single member of which had the absolute right of vetoing whatever legislation he chose. From this *liberum veto* there was no appeal. It checkmated her capable rulers at every turn, and it was primarily because of it that Poland went out as a separate nation.

What will be the boundaries of the new State? Presumably an endeavour will be made to give the Poles all that territory on which they are now living, but it is certain that Lithuania will not be included, despite the fact that the Poles regard Lithuania as part of

Poland. At present there are 15,000,000 Poles dwelling mostly in Russian Poland, Galicia and Posen. Of the 12,000,000 inhabitants in Russian Poland nearly 1,500,000 are Jews, who have most of the trade of the country in their hands, nearly 500,000 Germans live there also, and it is due to a great extent to German enterprise, that Poland is considerably ahead of the rest of Russia in agricultural methods, industries and education. The Germans are largely responsible for the remarkable development of manufacturing enterprise in Russian Poland. They made Lodz, the Birmingham of Poland, more a German city than a Polish one, and have increased the manufacture of textiles in a remarkable way. The Germans have settled chiefly west of the Vistula, in Plock, Kalisz, Piotrkow and Warsaw, with the result that these have rapidly become the most prosperous of the ten provinces into which Poland is divided. With the exception of Kiev, the Polish sugar industry is the greatest in Russia. Over a million tons are produced annually. Tanning is another important industry, and Warsaw boots have a great reputation throughout Russia, a country which consumes more book leather than any other in the world. The Germans did not concern themselves much with Polish trade until after the war of 1870-71. In 1875 the annual production of all the factories in Poland amounted to 5½ millions sterling only, in 1905 it had reached 53 millions sterling.

It is as a grain producing State, however, that Poland has always been noted. The soil is wonderfully fertile, and, save in the south, when the land begins to rise towards the Carpathians, Poland is quite flat, easy to cultivate. It is very similar to the great plains of Russia proper. The peasant was very hardly used by the nobles in the days of their greatness, but, although his misery is not as great now as it was then, his lot is still not a very happy one, and, like the mujik cultivator of Russia he is usually deeply in debt to the Jews. At one time the great landowners held all the land, but the process of breaking up the larger

estates is now proceeding steadily. The nobles still have nearly half the land, and of the 7,000,000 peasants, only 4,000,000 possess any land at all of their own.

About half of the 9,000,000 inhabitants of Galicia are Poles, residing mostly in the western half. In the east are Russniaks and Roumanians, with a sprinkling of Germans. There are mines in the mountains, but the people are mostly engaged in agricultural pursuits—grain, cattle and bees. Petroleum and salt are two of the most important natural products. On the whole the Austrians have treated the Poles reasonably. Polish is recognised as the official language. There are universities at Lemberg and Cracow. Galicia sends 63 deputies to the Austrian Reichsrath.

Despite the steady germanising of Posen there still remain some million Poles there. The capital is Posen, but the greatest town in Eastern Prussia is Breslau. It is about the size of Melbourne, and has a fine university. It is the capital of Silesia, which at one time belonged to the Bohemians, but was taken by the Austrians, and finally by Frederick the Great. Cracow, at one time capital of Poland, was the last portion of the kingdom to come beneath the heel of the participators of Poland. It remained an independent Republic for over thirty years, after the participation, being finally annexed by Austria in 1846.

The revived kingdom of Poland will not improbably have a boundary in what is now Prussia, some distance north of Thorn, will include the eastern part of Posen, and the western half of Galicia with Cracow, as well as Russian Poland. It is unlikely that the new kingdom will have a sea port, although Russia will naturally be anxious to secure Königsberg and Pillau if possible.

It is impossible in a magazine article to give much of the really fascinating history of Poland, but the following summary may convey some idea of that wonderful people which waxed and waned, and finally disappeared altogether. No very definite particulars are known as to the origin of the Poles; they are assumed to have been driven

north by the Romans from their settlements on the Danube. They finally found refuge in the swamps and morasses of the basin of the Vistula and Oder, and lived for centuries in the primeval forests in loose communities, which had little in common, till the pressure of barbarous hordes forced them to combine. It was not until the year 992 that Poland emerged as a united kingdom, under Boleslaw the Great. In his time Poland included Pomerania and Silesia, and stretched from the Baltic to the Carpathians, from the Elbe to the Bug.

It was after the ravishing of the land by the Tartars, under Batu, that the Poles induced many Germans to come and settle in their midst, thus creating for the first time a middle class in the nation. In the thirteenth century the Poles sought the assistance of the famous Teutonic knights, a religious order, to protect them against the inroads of the Prussians, a slavonic tribe, akin to the Lithuanians. These knights settled in what is now Eastern Prussia. The Poles ultimately found King Stork worse than King Log, and the knights were only overcome, long after, with the help of the very Prussians they had been called on to subdue. Poland even in those early days showed signs of that lack of unity amongst her people which was ever her bane.

Whilst local jealousies were weakening the kingdom, the Lithuanians to the north and east were building up a powerful state. Where these people come from is an even greater mystery than the origin of the Poles. They preserved their original savagery longer than did their neighbours, but proved themselves always a very brave and tenacious people. They were such formidable opponents that the Russians fled at the mere sight of them, like "hares before hunters." They were kin to the Prussians, a tribe which, although it ultimately gave its name to Prussia, was, perhaps, the least important of all the nations which the Electors of Brandenburg, united together, and welded into a great State.

It was a Prince of Lithuania, Jagiello, who, becoming king of Poland, by his

marriage with Hedwig, in 1384, finally joined the two states, and made possible the growth of a mighty kingdom, which dominated Eastern Europe for two centuries. Hedwig had succeeded Casimir the Great, the last of the Piast dynasty, founded by Piast, in the mythical days, when the Poles first settled in what is now Poland. The Jagiellonic period (1386-1572) is perhaps the most brilliant in Polish history. From the ashes of the old Piast kingdom arose a Republic, which became powerful beneath the guidance of a dynasty of princes, who, although springing from one of the least civilised of the many nationalities which composed Poland, were yet wonderfully perspicacious. Of the seven princes in the line, who held power during the two hundred years, five were great statesmen.

The Jagielloes were all of the same mould, but it was a very strong one, and of excellent pattern. These princes alone seem to have had gift of guiding the most difficult of all European nations. Two centuries of their rule made Poland great in spite of herself, but, when the line died out, the internal troubles of the Republic became still more acute, and there was none who could control the jealous factions, or impose his will on the diets of the various provinces and cities.

What Poland needed was a strongly centralised government, what she insisted on having was half-a-dozen loosely federated states, whose control was in the hands of country gentlemen, too ignorant and prejudiced to look beyond the boundaries of their own provinces. During the Jagiellonic period the Poles fought fiercely against the Russians, the Swedes, the Turks, and the Tartars. After the death of the childless Sigismund II., the last of the Jagiellonic line, the kings were elected, and the most corrupt methods were employed by the candidates, to secure the unquiet throne.

The King was practically only a chief magistrate. He had no voice in the choice of his successor; he was not to lead the militia across the border except by permission of the *szlachta*, or gentry. In fact, his liberty of action

was so curtailed, he had even to have his wife selected for him, that the gentry retained the entire power in their own hands. These *szlachta* entirely controlled the Diet, and appear to have been quite destitute of any political foresight whatever. They lacked even common patriotism, and had no public spirit. Even the most urgent national necessities failed to stir them to action, or to unloose their purse strings. Wealthy themselves, they refused supplies, left the army unpaid, and rendered nugatory the efforts of their kings, to save the country. They alienated the Cossacks, men who had originally come from Poland, allowed the Muscovites to over-run Livonia, and finally brought the Tartars down upon them.

The Cossacks ultimately transferred their allegiance to the Tsar, and shortly afterwards the Russians attacked Poland. The Swedes followed suit, and the end of the Republic seemed to be at hand. As so often before, however, the Poles rallied, made peace with the Swedes, and defeated the Russians winning back from them the provinces they had annexed.

After this brilliant effort an age of unmitigated egotism followed. Corruption was rampant. Every man played his own hand, and cared nothing for the State. The fatal *liberum veto* was introduced into the constitution in 1669. After its adoption any single Deputy to the Diet had the right to rise in his place, and say *nie pozwalam*, when he disproved any measure; it had then at once to be abandoned. Naturally, this power was terribly abused, being taken advantage of by highly placed criminals, who desired to prevent enquiry into their doings, or by foreign ambassadors, who wished to dissolve hostile diets. A deputy could always be found who was willing to use his veto, for a substantial consideration. In that age of shamelessness and villainy, even heroes debased themselves. The great John Sobieski, who, by his marvellous military skill, saved Vienna from the Turks, was no exception. He conspired against his king, and bribed himself into his throne. He reigned for

twenty-two years, defeated the Turks, but died a broken hearted man, foretelling the ultimate disintegration of the nation he himself had helped to demoralise.

Although the final fate of Poland was postponed for another seventy years, her doom was upon her, and her efforts to escape it were futile, although the Poles had a good chance of averting disaster, had they held together, when the rest of Europe was weakened by the Seven Years War. But again personal strife prevented national salvation, and nemesis approached inexorably. Catherine of Russia, and Frederic the Great coveted many of the Polish provinces, and in 1772 they proceeded to take them. Austria demanded her share also, and got it. Russia took in all 1586 square miles, and 550,000 people. Prussia took 629 square miles, with a population of 378,000, getting all the maritime provinces, although Poland retained Danzig and Thorn. Austria got the greater part of Galicia, except Cracow, 1710 square miles, with a population of 816,000. Poland thus lost quarter of her territory, and a fifth of her people. Terrible methods were resorted to before this robbery was agreed to by the Poles. A revolution in 1791 converted what was left of Poland, into a limited monarchy. The *liberum veto*, and the archaic constitution were abolished, and, allied with Prussia, there seemed reasonable hope that Poland might yet be saved. The fatal jealousies between the gentry again spoilt that chance. Some of them appealed to Catherine to restore the old order, and naturally she was only too glad to respond. Prussia, fearing that Russia would take the whole of Poland, also invaded the distracted country, and the second partition took place. It required twelve weeks of the most unscrupulous intimidation before Poland agreed to cede almost a quarter of a million square miles to Russia, and Danzig, Thorn and Great Poland to Prussia.

In 1794, under the patriot Kosciuszko, the Poles revolted against their Russian oppressors, and defeated them in several battles. Much of the old territory was recovered, Warsaw and Vilna were

liberated. But again the inevitable dissensions and jealousies amongst the Poles themselves made their supreme effort useless. The movement was finally crushed on the bloody field of Praga, and the third partition of Poland, which wiped the kingdom off the map altogether, took place in 1796. Russia, as usual, took the lion's share.

The Poles entered Napoleon's armies in great numbers, and the great Emperor created the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, out of the central provinces, which Russia had annexed, at the Peace of Tilsit. The Grand Duchy vanished when Napoleon's legions retreated from Moscow, and the Russians again took possession. The final act of the great Congress at Vienna in 1815 confirmed the division of Poland between Prussia, Russia and Austria. Cracow was made into a Republic, but was finally annexed by Austria, in 1848, after the agrarian troubles in Galicia. Alexander I., of Russia, gave the Poles a moderate degree of liberty, until they rebelled, in 1830, and drove out the Russians. The Tsar soon re-conquered the country, and from that day to this the Poles have groaned under the stern and harsh Muscovite rule, which aimed at stamping out their customs, their languages, almost their lives. There was one period of respite, under Alexander II., but, taking advantage of the more humane methods he introduced, the Poles again revolted, although they now had no arms, and but few weapons. There could be only one result; they were utterly crushed, and the ferocious methods of earlier days were again put in force. Whilst crushing the gentry and nobles, the Tsar liberated the peasants in Poland, as in Russia itself, so that, to them, at any rate, the rule of the Tsars has been less heavy than was that of their old oppressors, the landed gentry.

Whether the Poles will now be able to show sufficient unity, to create a really stable state, the years will show. They have had experience of Austrian, Russian and German rule, the latter especially has taught them much, which should aid them in the task before them, but have they learned their lesson?



A GROUP OF BOYS NEAR RABAUL.

OUR NEW POSSESSIONS.

By the courtesy of Mr. J. M. Niall we are able to reproduce some excellent photographs taken in our new territories of New Britain, New Guinea and Samoa. Mr. Niall has spent many months cruising about the Pacific, and knows the late German possessions thoroughly. In Samoa, at any rate, he says that the natives will welcome the change of control, although in the north he found the Germans better colonisers than the Dutch, despite the fact that the latter have a colonial experience of centuries behind them.

It is curious, by the way, in view of the vital need for adequately defending

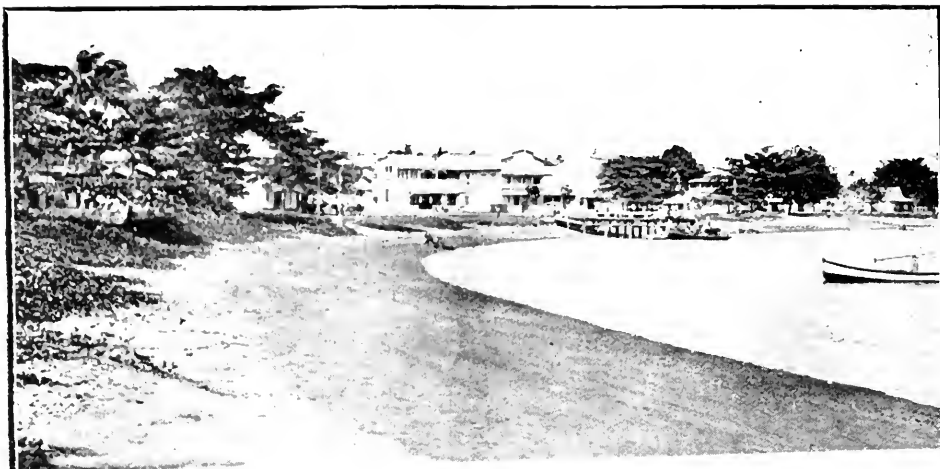
the great but on the whole undeveloped possessions Holland has in the East Indies, that she finds it impossible to man even her small East Indian navy with Dutchmen! It has been found necessary to draw upon the natives.

German Samoa has no really good harbour; that of Apia shown on the next page is practically an open roadstead shut in to some extent by a low reef. It was from this harbour that H.M.S. "Calliope" steamed in the teeth of a hurricane in 1889, cheered as she went by the crews of the American and German warships, whose twisted hulls still lie on the beach.



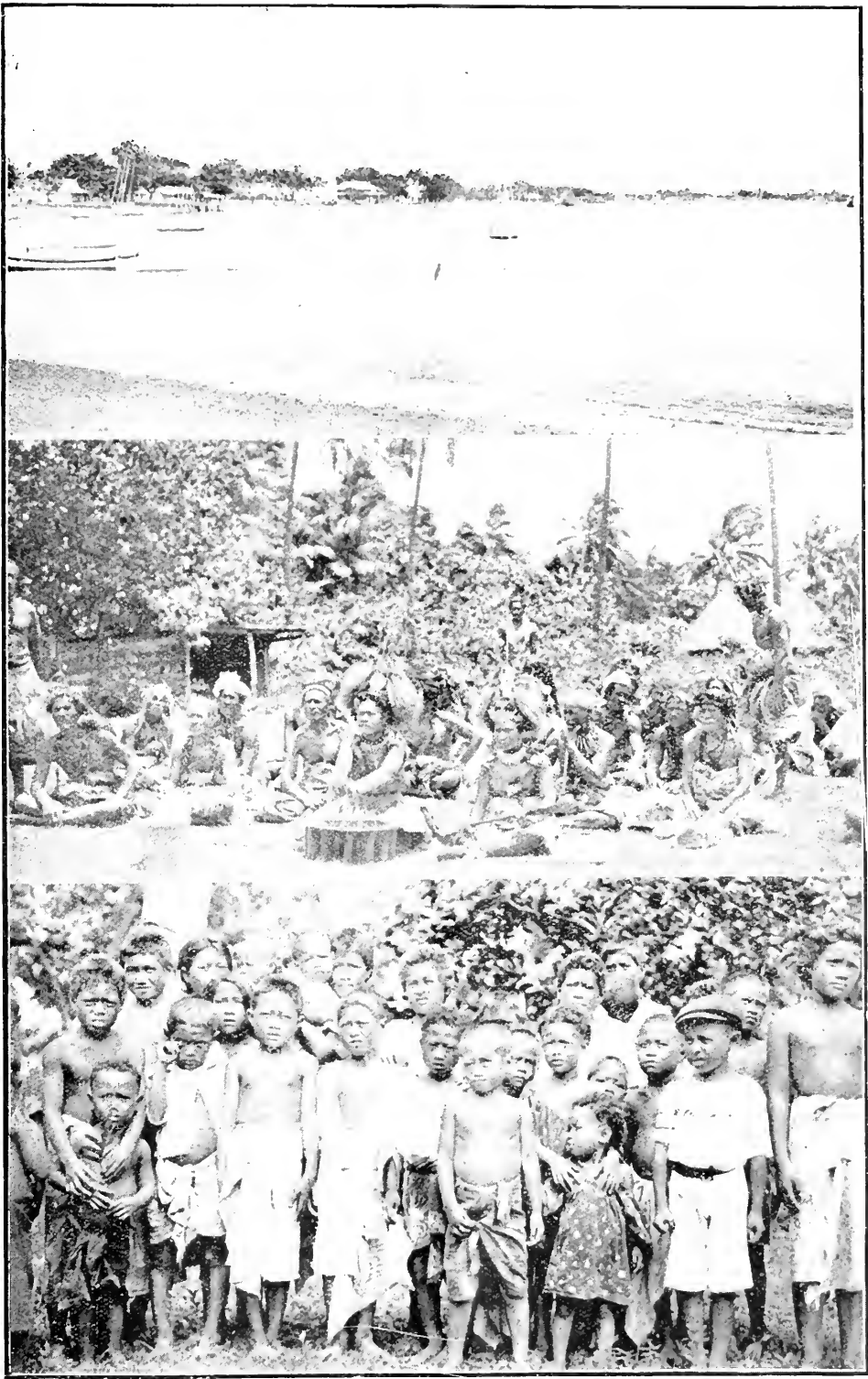
IN GERMAN NEW GUINEA.

Mr. Niall, with the canoe and crew which took him round the coast.



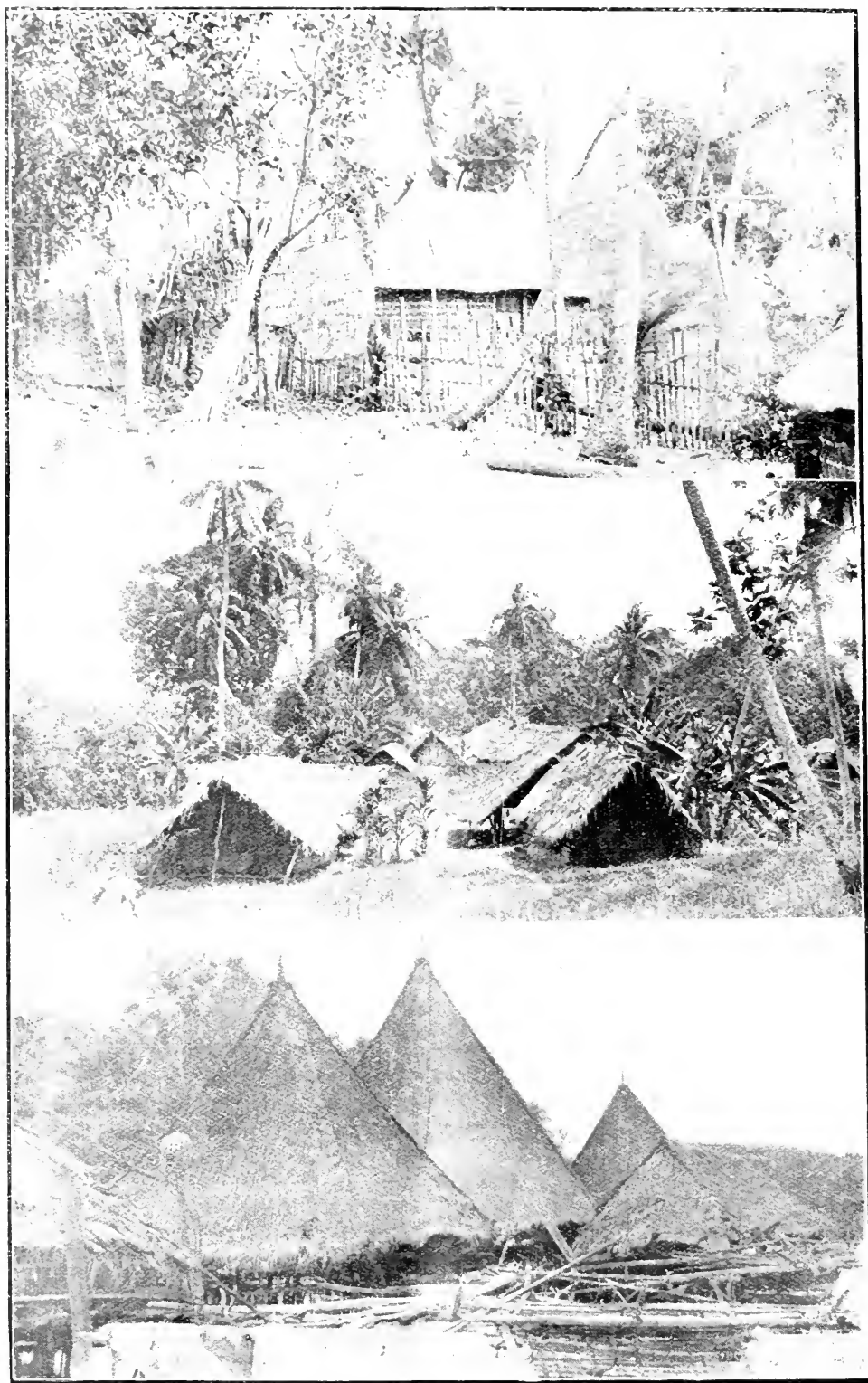
VIEWS IN GERMAN SAMOA.

1. Apia (the capital).
2. Typical Samoan huts. Robert L. Stevenson is buried on the hill behind.
3. The Talolo- Native Chiefs on their way to pay their respects to the German Governor.



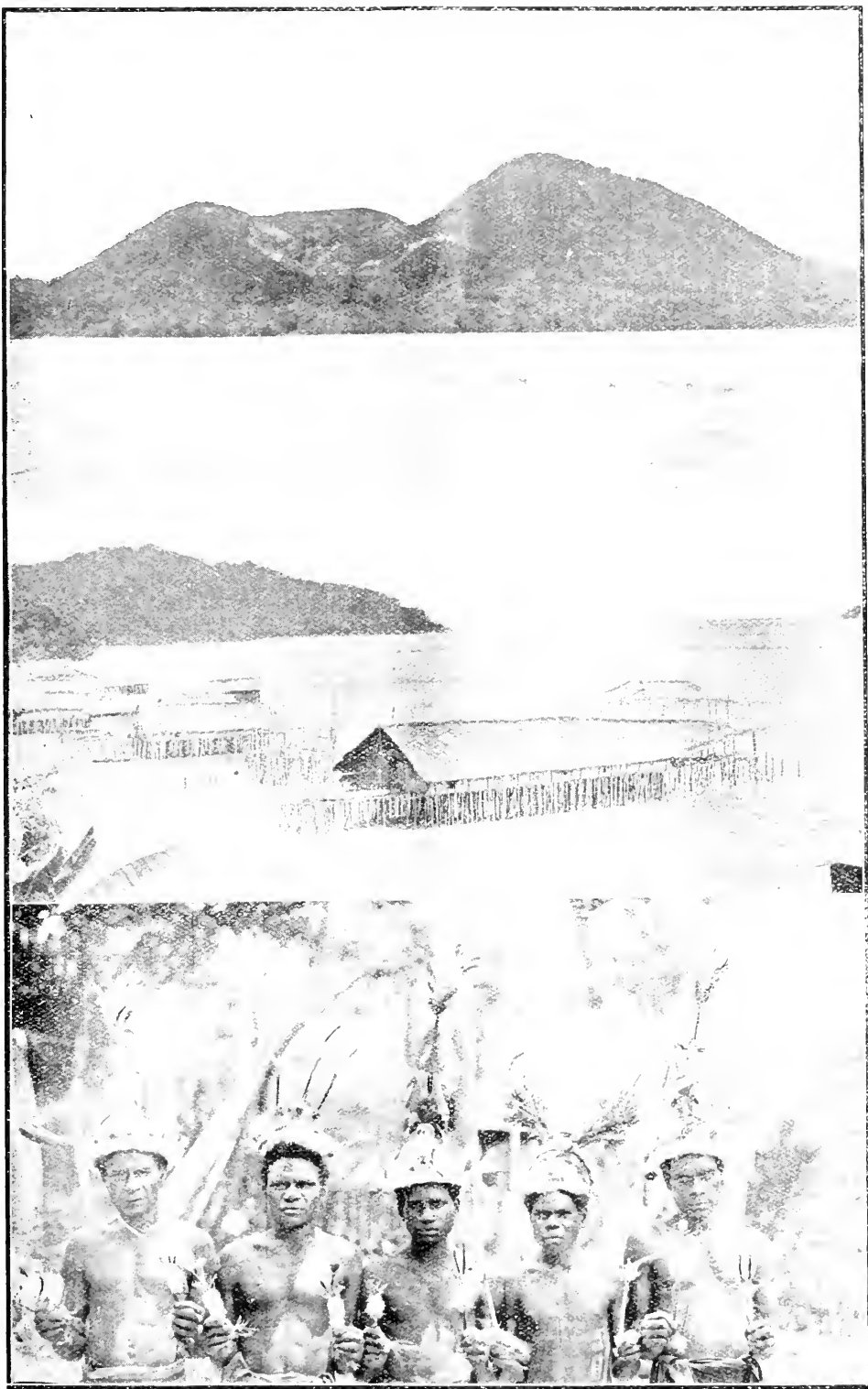
VIEWS IN GERMAN SAMOA.

1. Apia Harbour.
2. Natives preparing Kava (the local beverage).
3. A group of our new subjects.



DWELLINGS OF OUR NEW SUBJECTS IN GERMAN NEW GUINEA.

1. A fisherman's hut. Fish traps made of bamboo hang in the trees.
2. An inland village.
3. A common type of hut in the conquered territory.



IN GERMAN NEW GUINEA.

1. View of the volcano Simsonshafen, the harbour on which Rabaul is situated.
2. Typical Papuan hut, German New Guinea. The Malay huts are also built over the water, but are square in shape.
3. Natives at Rabaul in ceremonial dress.

AN AMERICAN VIEW OF THE SITUATION.

ANGLO-GERMAN ANTAGONISM.

On the whole the American papers show a very strong pro-British feeling, but deal most fairly with the war. The following article in the *Independent*, of New York, gives the view of a well-informed American on the situation which led up to the war.

The only unexpected thing about the present European war is the date of it. No war in history has been so long anticipated, so carefully prepared for and so thoroughly discussed, not only in the privy councils, but in the press of all nations. Every European soldier knew where his uniform and his rifle were stored; he also thought he knew as well where he was to fight, with whom he was to fight, and when. Seemingly every detail had been worked out "to the last gaiter-button," and nothing had been left to chance. But chance is a factor that cannot be neglected in any human calculations. The European powder magazine was ignited by a Servian youth who stepped upon the running board of the automobile of an Austrian archduke and fired in his face. But although the explosion was accidental and premature, the war has on the whole followed its predicted direction both as to plan of campaign and alignment of the powers. The chief divergence from expectation is that Italy has found her obligations to the Triple Alliance less binding than has been supposed—although she was known to be disaffected—by those who had not read that unpublished convention.

This precipitation of the conflict acts to the disadvantage of Germany, for that country was growing stronger and France and England relatively weaker every year that peaceful competition continued. When Germany conquered France in 1870 these two countries were pretty nearly evenly matched in population; now Germany has sixty-nine million to France's thirty-nine and England's forty-six million. Germany is increasing in population at the rate of 14 per cent. each decade, the United King-

dom at the rate of 9 per cent., while in France the deaths out-number the births in some years. If Germany had been allowed to continue her progress unchecked by such disasters as the loss of 25,000 young men at Liege, she would before long have out-numbered both France and England.

The United Kingdom loses every year between two and three hundred thousand men by emigration, and these among the best she breeds, for the dominions oversea will accept no others. Germany, on the contrary, has checked the outflow of her people, and is attracting immigration. Rural England is being depopulated, and soon it seems there will be left, as Chesterton says, only the village idiot. Year by year more land in the British Isles goes out of cultivation and is given over to grass or game. Germany, however, is developing her agricultural resources, and is enabled not only to feed her own people, but part of England's, selling her every year, for instance, £200,000 worth of eggs and £100,000 of potatoes. In England pauperism has alarmingly increased, and the army of the unemployed grows more menacing. Germany, meanwhile, by her system of industrial legislation and insurance, has gone far toward solving these social problems. Among the thousands of Americans now marooned in Germany, many were there to study the German methods of municipal management, model housing and technical education. For all her heavy expenditure to support her great army and navy, the public debt of Germany is only £3 per capita, while that of England is £16, and that of France £30.

It was, in fact, because the Germans were the first to apply modern scientific methods to administration, industries and commerce that they have beaten the English, who, with all their admirable qualities, are deficient in this respect, as they themselves have frankly recognised. France was beaten in 1870, ac-

according to the old saying, by the German schoolmaster. England found herself being beaten by the German schoolmaster in fields she had once held to be her own. Chemistry in its early days was called "a French science"; later England led the world in chemical manufactures; but recently Germany has been rapidly monopolising it. The world has been paying Germans £60,000,000 a year for the dyes, the drugs and the perfumes which they have learned to make, utilising coal tar and the like that other countries threw away. And now the cotton mills of England and the United States are closing down because they cannot get the German dyes. One German discovery alone, synthetic indigo, brought ruin upon an important industry of British India.

But it was when Germany took to the sea and began ousting England from the markets of the world that British apprehension changed to alarm. Between 1880 and the present time the value of foreign commerce per capita of England increased by about 50 per cent., but that of Germany increased by 150 per cent. Hamburg and Antwerp, both built by German trade, have outstripped London in their shipping. No British line of steamers can surpass the Hamburg-American, which had 26 vessels in 1867, but has now 439, minus such as have been sunk by British cruisers. Great Britain has not been able even to hold the trade of her own colonies, in spite of patriotic appeals and devices for imperial preference. Year by year a greater percentage of the trade of Australia, New Zealand and India went to Germany instead of to the mother country.

Thirty years ago Germany determined that she needed colonies of her own for her growing population and commerce, and accordingly she demanded "a place in the sun." But here again her ambitions clashed with the interests of Great Britain and France in the Pacific, Africa and Asia. The Kaiser took possession of the northern part of New Guinea. The Australians, who had had their eye on the island for some time, promptly took possession of

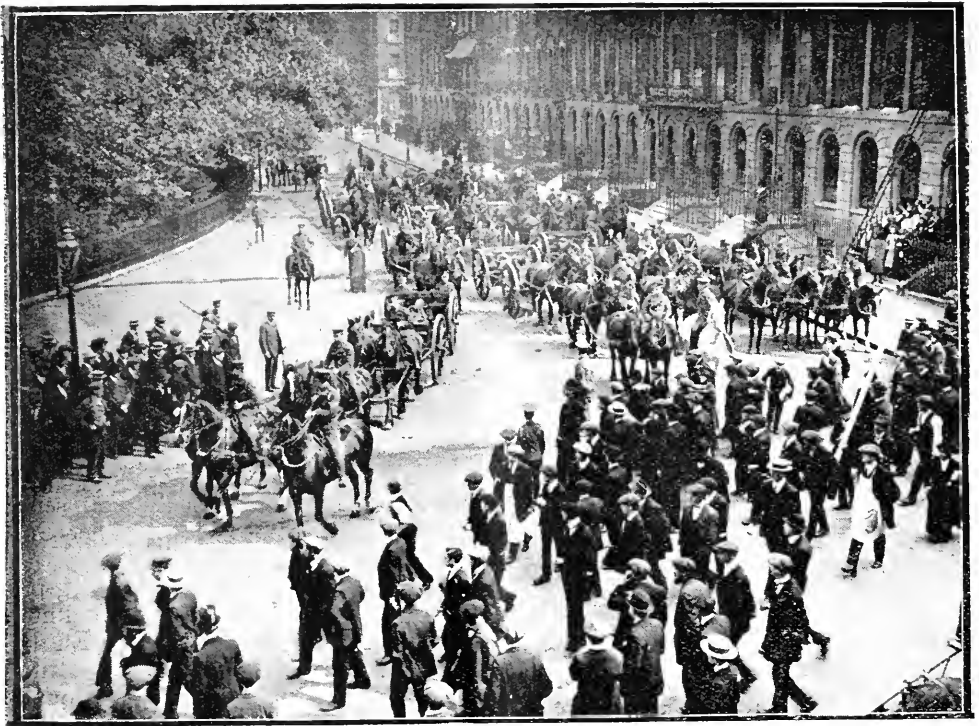
the southern half, regardless of orders from London, and the territory was divided. That great Empire-builder, Cecil Rhodes, planned a Cape-to-Cairo railroad, but this magnificent scheme was blocked by the German and Belgian possessions, which formed a broad band across the middle of Africa. Then Germany turned her attention to Asia Minor, and secured a concession for a railroad from the Bosphorus to the Persian Gulf, with a twelve-mile strip of land for colonisation all along the twelve hundred mile route. This would have given a through line from Hamburg to India, but Great Britain put a stop to it by seizing the head of the gulf and forming an alliance with her ancient enemy, Russia, for the partition of Persia. In China, Germany occupied Kaio-chau; England countered by taking Wei-hai-wei. When France took Morocco, the German "Panther" appeared at Agadir.

It was, in fact, on the question of colonies that the break finally came. According to Sir Edward Grey's recent statement to Parliament, Germany agreed not to annex any territory in Europe, but would not give the same pledge in regard to Africa. The attack on Liege is a blow to Belgium's ownership of the Congo. Now, England has been loudest in her complaints that the King of the Belgians took the Free State of the Congo by fraud, and treated the natives with unspeakable cruelty, and one of the many ironies of the present situation is that England by sending troops to the Continent is defending Belgium's title to this African territory. England has already seized German Togoland, adjoining her Gold Coast colony.

The effect of Germany's amazing progress upon England everybody knows who has been reading the English papers in recent years. The British found themselves losing all around; beaten by the German men in business; beaten by the German women in birth-rate. A wave of hysteria and Teutonophobia swept over the land. The people got to "seeing things at night," Zeppelins in the air and submarines in the sea. The empire was drawn together,

as Kipling puts it, "by the ties of common funk." The fleet was gathered from the seven seas and placed on guard over Germany. The hotheads even called upon the Government to strike without warning or pretext, because this was the last chance and the only way to destroy Germany. Such an unprovoked attack was rightly rejected as incompatible with England's honour. The British people, rallying from their temporary flurry, set themselves resolutely to prepare for the time when Germany by some act of aggression should provoke the conflict as she has now by invading the neutrality of Belgium, and so giving England diplomatic grounds for taking up arms against her. In 1912 the British Admiralty issued an official memorandum calling upon the oversea dominions to assist in bringing the

navy by 1915 up to a strength sufficient to meet the Germans in battle or to overawe them so that they would not then dare to fight. In explaining the reason for this, Premier Borden, of Canada, fresh from a conference with the British War Office, declared that "these ships are urgently required within two or three years at the outside for rendering aid upon which may depend the Empire's future existence." The "Ides of March have come, but not gone"; the three superdreadnoughts which Canada was asked for but failed to furnish "within two or three years" of 1912 are now needed, for this is *der Tag* which the German officers have long been toasting. The question of the supremacy of the seas is being decided by naval instead of merchant vessels.



FINSBURY SQUARE, LONDON.

All the open spaces in London have been utilised for drill and instructional purposes. Finsbury Square, for instance, has been converted into a riding school.

THE DANGER IN THE AIR.

Last month we published an article on the "Menace of the Zeppelin," in which we pointed out that it would be quite possible for Germany to have at least fifty of these craft, waiting the psychological moment to issue forth and deliver a paralysing attack from the air. The objection has been raised that if these Zeppelins really existed they would surely have been used already, in a supreme endeavour to take Paris. There is some little comfort in that, but at the same time we must bear in mind the fact that it is against warships and towns that Zeppelins are designed to operate, not against armies in the field. Shell fire is even more effective than bomb dropping, and when the foe is within reach, as in the battlefields of France, the Zeppelins could hardly be turned to good account, therefore why risk them?

As pointed out last month, we do not believe that the airships reported as destroyed are Zeppelins at all, merely Parsevals, used for scouting purposes. That view has been strikingly confirmed by General French, who reports that no Zeppelins at all have been observed in the French theatre of war, only small dirigibles, and, of course, aeroplanes. Reports certainly convey the impression that the Taube monoplane is a finer machine than any possessed by the Allies.

We have had many accounts of bomb dropping cabled out to us, but the messages have almost invariably ended with an intimation that little damage was done. It is very surprising therefore to read, in the English papers just to hand of the terrible effects of bomb dropping in Antwerp. According to the accounts published, airships had a good deal to do with the reduction of the Liege forts, and one which dropped bombs into Antwerp did immense damage. Sixty houses were practically destroyed, and no fewer than 900 were damaged, whilst a very large number of peaceful inhabitants were slain. The population was terror-stricken, and a strong protest was made against the outrage.

It is a grim commentary on our civilisation that the very nation which took the lead in the effort to entirely prohibit the dropping of explosives from aircraft should be the first to suffer from this form of attack. Had France supported the gallant little kingdom instead of opposing her, the dropping of bombs would probably have been forbidden by the rules of war. The Germans would have used this method no matter what rules were broken, but as it is they can shelter themselves behind the rules of war, which do not prohibit this sort of warfare.

Our surmise having been confirmed by General French, and the danger from bombs—which were probably dropped from a Parseval—having been demonstrated, causes us to feel that the seriousness of the aerial position set forth last month was in no way overdrawn. Since that article appeared, cables have described experiments on the Lake of Constance, the dropping of torpedoes from a Zeppelin high in air, followed by a terrible explosion as the missiles struck the water. We have had rumours, from American sources certainly, that at least fifty Zeppelins are waiting at Berlin, one of the headquarters of this craft. Finally comes word of a contemplated aerial raid on England, confirmed to some extent by the news that orders have been given for all lights to be shaded in London at night. We are told, too, of the arrival of trainloads of framework and airship material at Wilhelmshafen, where Count Zeppelin is making his headquarters. This framework will not be for the airships themselves, but for the sheds in which to house them while preparing for their flight across the sea.

Last month we suggested that the only sure way to destroy a Zeppelin was to charge it with an aeroplane. This comforting thought is rather upset by an article in *Everybody's Magazine*. The writer, Mr. T. R. MacMechen, is the president of the Aeronautical Society of America, and should know what he is talking about. He points out that while France, Great Britain, Italy and Russia

have been experimenting with all manner of aircraft, Germany has been steadily developing a genuine air battleship.

It was hardly more than ten years ago that Germany saw her vision of air empire, and, seizing on Count Zeppelin's idea, began to build. She has worked with scientific thoroughness and precision, with a fine unity of purpose and a splendid devotion. She has studied the air, invented new kinds of guns, devised new explosives, perfected air-tactics, developed a new art of navigation, co-ordinating her work into one great whole.

THE ADMIRAL IN THE AIR.

We gave some particulars last month of the achievements of Zeppelins. Mr. MacMechen recapitulates these, and adds some more. The air craft can remain at a height of 9000 feet for hours at a time, and can soar 6500 feet from the ground in eight minutes. The light aeroplane can go far higher, of course, but the armoured aeroplane cannot. Mr. MacMechen thus describes what was recently done during the German naval manoeuvres:—

A marine Zeppelin, acting as the flagship of a German naval squadron, took the sea-admiral up into the air, where it hovered in the safety zone while the admiral counted and classified the sea-fleet of the distant "enemy," and located submarines in the ocean which lay, transparent, below him.

By wireless, he ordered every movement of his own ships, which lay below the horizon, where they escaped the eye of the enemy. He directed them where to attack the enemy so that ship after ship of the foe might be annihilated before others could come to its aid.

At night he could turn on a powerful searchlight, of 40,000 candle-power, and from a height of 5000 feet "spot" anything on the surface.

And he was perfectly safe, not only because nothing could hit him, but because he was invisible, at 9000 feet, even in broad daylight. The ships are covered with aluminium paint—a very recent device for protection against sun-expansion and rain, whose dazzling brightness makes them difficult to see in clear sunshine, and quite invisible against a gray sky. And noiseless

motors now add another element of protection.

Such ships now fly sixty miles an hour. Recently, one of them flew all the way across Germany at *sixty-five* miles an hour. And in sight of an enemy, when a Zeppelin flies before the wind, its speed is seventy to eighty miles.

Mr. MacMechen considers that a modern Dreadnought has but a poor chance to escape from Zeppelin attack, and foretells its speedy destruction. Weather conditions make little difference to these great airships. The L3, the giant marine Zeppelin, flew all over Germany, covering 2040 miles in 34 hours, and when she reached Berlin she had fuel enough to run for sixteen hours longer at the rate of 60 miles an hour.

WHAT ARE THEIR FIGHTING POWERS?

What can a Zeppelin *do*? And what can other fighting machines, air, land, or water, do to her?

Steel-capped torpedoes are a sea Zeppelin's heaviest missile. Torpedoes that hit with the force of a naval shell and pierce four to six inches of armour. That is, they will pass through a battleship's upper deck to the armoured deck below, tear it, and explode on the ship's magazine. With this weapon a Zeppelin could sink the strongest Dreadnought at one blow.

Then there is a quick-firing gun that sends two-inch shells of Belgian macarite which will destroy power-houses and depots of supply; and the stream-like fire of the machine-rifle for troops on the ground. With the aid of gravity to give it greater force, such bullet-like fire does more damage than a field cannon firing shrapnel.

As for aim, repeated tests have shown that a Zeppelin can shoot with appalling accuracy and effectiveness, and at long range. From the height of a mile or more the aim is absolute. At that altitude, and three miles away, gunners, with weapons moving in their pivots as easily as rifles, sight accurately. At the height of a mile and a-half, they can send a 1½-lb. shell of macarite deep below the water line, to reach a warship's unprotected hull. They can blow a hole a foot in diameter through both skins of a battleship, and put it out of action

in thirty minutes. With its semi-automatic gun, the Zeppelin can at the same time rain bullets upon the most vulnerable points of the ship.

This is truly a harrowing tale, but there is more to follow. Mr. MacMechen proceeds to demolish the idea that an aeroplane can destroy a Zeppelin. The shooting towards the ground is deadly, but it is equally so "across the air."

Not long ago the "Zeppelin V." during target practice over artillery ground, while circling around its mark fired across the air a distance of more than one mile, and frequently hit an aeroplane thirty-three by twelve feet, which was suspended from a huge kite. Several hits were scored at a distance of more than 6000 feet—its longest dependable range.

Not much hope for an aeroplane that ventures within range. And, remember, a rigid dirigible carries guns for firing in every direction—guns on top of the hull, below it, at both sides. This is, indeed, the great military advantage of the rigid system.

He points out that owing to the guns on the top of a Zeppelin an aeroplane cannot get near enough to drop bombs effectively. It has to fly at least 2500 feet above the airship to be safe, and the bomb can be easily seen and avoided as it falls. Light machine guns on aeroplanes are also useless, as their range is much shorter than that of the airship. A shell may pass clean through a Zeppelin without seriously damaging its effectiveness. He concludes—

No, an aeroplane has little chance to harm an airship. Its bomb-throwing is useless, its guns cannot reach. About the only effective attack for an aviator is to hurl his aeroplane at a dirigible and sacrifice himself to destroy the enemy. But this cannot be a frequent resource. How often, at sea, does a destroyer succeed in wrecking a battleship by hurling its deadly torpedo at close range? The air incident is a parallel. It is a desperate resort, and likely to be vain. . . . The dirigible shoots too well.

One of the most dramatic steps was making the airship also a cruiser.

Armies had found the Zeppelins too big to haul. Smaller airships were needed, which could be folded and carried. But such craft could never be anything but auxiliaries to creeping forces. Von Tirpitz—a sailor—saw the solution: made the airship a sea-cruiser. It grew larger to accommodate itself to the immensity of ocean distances. It became a real fighting ship, able to carry armour-piercing guns, and to reach directly vital points impossible to attain in war-time except through the air.

Here is another evidence of the thoroughness of German preparedness in the air: For four years every Zeppelin has worked with its aeroplane squadron to perfect tactics for engaging an enemy. Wireless signalling between the mother ship and her "planes" was perfected three years ago. The cloud of "destroyers" assists greatly in minimising the dirigible's vulnerability in the presence of an enemy on land or in the air.

Spread out like a huge fan, for a hundred miles in front of the airship, these scouts—some of them fast planes carrying two men and no equipment but a wireless with a ninety-mile sending range—seek out the wind and the enemy, and relay the news by wireless to intermediate planes, and thus to the master airship. Thus protected, the dirigible, superbly ready, goes out for conquest in the clouds.

A horrible picture, truly! The Germans have demonstrated during the war that they are far ahead of the other nations in equipment. Their heavy guns have no rival amongst those of the Allies, their quickfirers win them battles. It would not be at all surprising if they really have invented something remarkable in the way of airship ordnance. In fact, the only comfort we have is that many of the Zeppelins have come to grief at different times, that, being filled with gas, the slightest spark will ignite them, and that, whatever Mr. MacMechen may say, an aeroplane hurling through the air, at a hundred miles an hour, must be a mighty difficult thing to hit, be the gunner ever so expert.

CHANGING THE GEOGRAPHY OF THE WORLD.

The *World's Work* gives far and away the best articles on the war of any magazine that has yet reached Australia, and anyone who wants to have a strictly impartial survey of the situation, both political and military, should

not fail to get it. The general feeling that this struggle must result in the ultimate domination of Europe by the Slavs is shown by most of the contributors of its pages.

Referring to the possible changes in

the map when the fight is over, the *World's Work* says:—

When this war is over and the smoke has cleared away conquerors and conquered will come together and settle the price of peace. The largest element in that price will be territory, for in terms of territory are the hostile ambitions of the fighting nations expressed. Nationality and territory, these will be redefined. The map as we have known it is gone.

If in the end Germany and Austria prevail, it is difficult to exaggerate the geographical changes that will follow as a consequence of German supremacy on land and sea. If the ill-assorted Anglo-Latin-Slav alliance crushes the imperial German incubus, which has threatened them all these last forty years, territorial changes will be less extensive, but equally fundamental. In the latter case something in the nature of balance of power between the victorious allies will restrict the readjustment after German expansion has been stamped out. In the former case no such thing as the balance of power, as it has been hitherto understood among the nations of Europe, will survive. All that can then restrain a victorious Germanic imperialism will be a possible internal dissension following upon a devastating war and the creation of a new balance of power, as between Germany, the United States, and the dominant nation of

the Far East. In any case the most impressive geographical changes will probably not be made in the map of Europe. A nation cannot be wiped off the map. The great changes in international geography will be made in the colonial possessions of the expanding nations. Colonies can be wiped off the map or painted a different colour.

Besides the British Empire of India, with its three hundred millions of alien population, Great Britain also means the enormous federated territory of Australia and Canada. The highly improbable, but not impossible, event of crushing naval reverses for England would mean the loss of India. Canada and Australia would at once become negligible as props to England's crippled fortune. So much of the situation is clear, though in its consequences by no means easy to appreciate.

After giving information about various German possessions throughout the world, the writer goes on to point out that the Allies will make every effort to secure these, because when it comes to treaties of peace, actual possession of colonial territory counts nine-tenths in the settlement; such acquisitions being either permanently retained or bartered for a heavy compensating price.

AUSTRIA'S CIVILISING MISSION.

An Austrian diplomatist gives in the *World's Work* an account of what Austria has actually achieved in Bosnia-Herzegovina. So far from trying to crush the Slavs and suppress their language and nationality, Austria made no attempt to introduce German schools, and declined to permit the expenditure of public money for instruction in any language except Slavic.

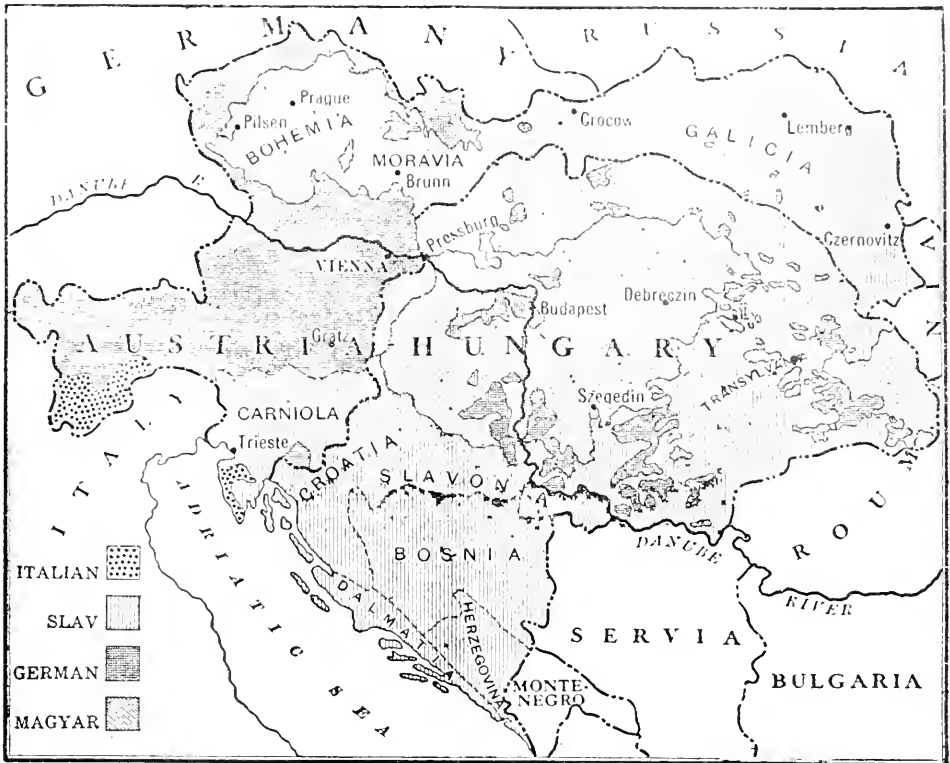
This liberal policy stands out in sharp contrast to the destructive activities of the Servians in the newly-occupied Macedonian lands, where they have closed all the Bulgarian schools amid circumstances of severity, to which some reference is made in the Report of the Carnegie Commission. Certainly there is nothing in the establishment of Serb schools by Austria in Bosnia and Herzegovina to justify the contention of the Servians that Austria is seeking to crush out Serb nationality under the rule of the double eagle. In 1900 the Slavs of Bosnia and Herzegovina, after thirty years of Austrian administration, stood higher educationally than any of the independent Slavic nations of the Balkan Peninsula.

Thanks, says our Diplomatist, to its liberal treatment of the claims of contending nationalities, the German ele-

ment in many parts of Austria is already on the defensive, and the ascendancy of the Slav element is more and more felt in the political and intellectual life of the Empire.

In the midst of these contending racial forces the mission of Austria has been, first, to introduce among the great Slavic populations within her borders the ideals of German culture and German civilisation. Her greatest achievements in this direction have been in Bohemia. It is recognised by the Slavic world universally that the Slavic movement in Prague is the outcome of German culture inculcated by Austria. It is one of the tragic circumstances of history that the German culture imparted to the Czechs is now operating in favour of the pan-Slavic cause, intellectual and political.

The writer points out that the Serbian claim to Bosnia-Herzegovina on the ground that it had been at one time part of the great Serbian Empire under Stefan Dushan about five hundred years ago, is pretty weak, as this empire lasted only twenty years. He naturally sees Russia in all the Balkan troubles, and holds that the agitation for Serbian possession of the two provinces emanated from the Russian capital.



[By courtesy of the "World's Work."]

VIEWS OF A VETERAN WAR CORRESPONDENT.

How even the most experienced of men were wrong in their forecasts of the efficiency of the different forces in the field is well illustrated by Mr. J. Archibald's article on "The Fighting Armies," in the *World's Work*. Now, Mr. Archibald has seen service in no fewer than fifteen campaigns, and has been with twenty-six armies in the field, yet he too assumed that the French artillery was the best in the world, that France was better prepared in the air than any of the other countries at war, and that the Austrian soldiers form the most ideal force in Europe, "as strong and hardy as the Germans, but have all the active mobility of the French. The Hungarians are of the same type, and are, if that were possible, even more patriotic and more greatly imbued with the war spirit." All these assumptions have been upset by the grim reality of war. The German artillery has proved

itself easily the most efficient, the German aeroplanes have far excelled the French, and the Austrians have made the worst showing of all in the war. Mr. Archibald's opinions of other armies are interesting. He says:—

My recent tour of the Balkans convinced me that it will be a most difficult task to bring any enthusiasm among the lower classes in either of these countries except Roumania, where the peasants are of a higher class. Roumania is strictly for peace, but I have never seen a more magnificent force of men than constitute her army. Her aeronautic corps is highly advanced, and her artillery equal in efficiency to that of the French. The whole country is more like France, and French influence is more in evidence than that of any other country in Europe. In Bulgaria and Serbia the lower classes have had their fill of the horrors of war, and, although they will be compelled to fight, their movements will lack much of the zest and patriotic enthusiasm shown at the time they fought the demoralised Turks.

Turkey of to-day must be reckoned with in this struggle, both in arms and in

diplomacy. There is no better infantry in the world than the Turkish infantry; their abstemious habits, their national temperance, which is a part of their faith, puts them among the best foot soldiers of the world.

Mr. Archibald touches on the political situation, and thus states his view:—

Austria and Serbia have precipitated this titanic struggle, but underlying that local situation which came to a head following the investigation of the assassination of Archduke Ferdinand and his wife in Sarajevo, there is the great problem of an economic war between the Slav and the Teuton for supremacy in the Balkans. Russia has

not been supporting Serbia for the last years for Serbia's good; she has not poured arms and ammunition and instructing officers into Serbia for Serbia's good; neither has she made presents of batteries of artillery to the Bulgarian Czar for the good of Bulgaria. Russia has been preparing for this struggle ever since she was checked by Japan in the Far East. Austria has known this, Germany has known it—in fact, every one seems to have known it except the Servians and the Bulgarians. They apparently wish to believe that Russia is helping them for their own sake as a pure matter of philanthropic aid. Russia has entered upon the struggle to determine what nation will dominate the future of Europe.

WHISTLER.

Mr. Frank Harris, of the *Saturday Review*, contributes a most intimate sketch of Whistler to the *Forum*. He knew the great artist well, although Whistler's combativeness led him to bring an action against the *Saturday Review* for a criticism of one of his etchings. This, by the way, was the only one of his many law cases that the pugnacious little man won. Mr. Harris thus describes the painter when he first met him:—

He was always quarrelling, I was told; a peculiar little fellow, inordinately conceited, and bitter beyond reason—"a tongue like a whiplash, and very American," was the usual summary verdict. At first sight I was struck, as I imagine everyone was struck, by his appearance; an alert, wiry little person of five feet four or five; using a single eyeglass and very neatly dressed, though always with something singular in his attire—the artist's self-conscious protest—which gave him a certain exotic flavour and individuality. He wore his abundant curly black hair rather long, and just over the forehead a little lock of quite white hairs like a plume; in the street a French top hat—a stove pipe, as it is called—with a straight brim which shouted, "I'm French, and proud of it!" at the passers-by. Whistler's eyes were grey-blue and gimlet-keen—"anything but kindly"—and the moustache and carriage intensified the cocky challenge of the fighter; Whistler always reminded me of a bantam.

Whistler was a great talker, and exceedingly brilliant, with a biting wit. By himself he was without affectation or aggressiveness, but as soon as there was an audience he wanted to hold the floor and monopolise the conversation.

Mr. Harris chronicles some of his bitter though clever sayings.

A great personage rather resented his egotism, and told him so, at a dinner, then turned pointedly away to talk to the host. Someone said something encouraging to Whistler, who remarked in the air, "Yes, yes, he forgot himself; but then he is quite right to forget what isn't worth remembering." Furious with his old friend Swinburne for a criticism of his paintings, he wrote a contemptuous note to the *World*, criticising Swinburne, in which he spoke of "Scientific irrelevancies and solemn popularities of a serious and ungrateful sage, whose mind was not narrowed by knowledge," and requested Swinburne to stick to his poetry, and not "stray about blindly in his brother's flowerbeds and bruise himself." When Mr. Theodore Watts, Swinburne's friend and house-mate, took the name of Dunton, Whistler wrote him simply. "Theodore, what's Dunton?" One remembers the story of the lady who coupled him with Velasquez, assuring him that the only two sacred names in her whole history of art were Whistler and Velasquez. "True, true, dear lady," remarked Whistler sadly; "but why drag in Velasquez?"

Alexander Harrison, the painter, has given the most understanding appreciation of Whistler's real nature:—

I have never known a man of more sincere and genuine impulse even in ordinary human relations, and I am convinced that

no man ever existed who could have been more easily controlled on lines of response to a "fair and square" appreciation of his genuine qualities. When off his guard, he was often a pathetic kid, and I have spotted him in bashful moods, although it would be hard to convince the bourgeois of this. Wit, pathos, gentleness, affection, audacity, acridity, tenacity, were brought instantly to the sensitive surface like a flash, by rough contact.

I think, says Mr. Harris, that Whistler's pettiest fault was that he had a poor memory for a kindness done. Men had treated him contemptuously for so many years, life had been so unjust to him that his temper had got raw; every touch smarted, and he was up in arms and eager to fight to the death for a casual rub. If he were inclined to sacrifice friendship too cheaply for a biting jest or witty word, he was very quick to appreciate ability even in his enemies. Towards the end of his life, when his powers were at their best, this great artist and man of genius wasted his time and talent in unworthy and absurd quarrellings. He neglected his art, and allowed his gift to humanity to be diminished in order to gratify his vanity and temper: he had come to his own, and his own received him not, and he preferred to punish rather than to forgive. I asked him once what he thought of Oscar Wilde. "I have his scalp," he laughed, "but am not proud of it. Oscar is imitator, not artist." "He may outgrow that," I remarked. "The sponge is always sponging," was Whistler's quick retort.

At fifty the English law made a world-wide benefactor a bankrupt, and Whistler's home was sold up; his pictures given away for a song; his household goods all dispersed and lost. His mother was weak, and needed the comforts of money. He took her to a good home in a watering place, and then, paint-box in hand, sallied forth to Venice, when past middle age, to build up another home and, incidentally, a new fame. And the artist's courage is not that desperate unhappy dour resolution that a Carlyle looked on as the ideal; it is a smiling, joyous, happy valiance. Whistler knew that happiness was needed for his art, and he kept his joyous wit undisturbed. The story of it is one of the great stories of the world. Nothing finer, nothing more heroic has been told of man.

Whistler, says Mr. Harris, was essentially modest, the perfect type of the great creative artist.

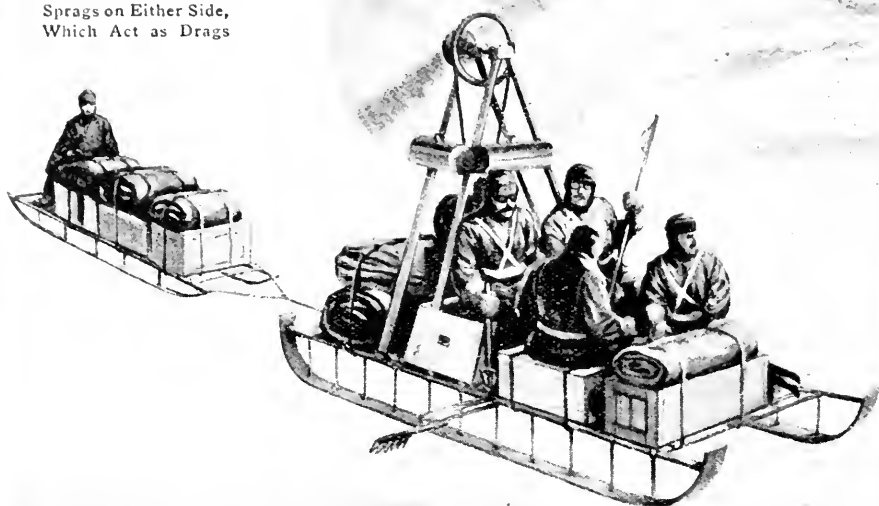
Asked by a foolish Attorney-General how he came to put £200 on a picture he could paint in a day, he replied: "Because it took me a lifetime to win to that mastery." The barrister who often got more for doing nothing found fault with the answer. He and the foolish judge both agreed that the picture was not worth the money; this very picture, condemned by Ruskin and jeered at by barrister, judge and jury, has had an eventful history. The picture then belonged to Mr. Graham. A few years after at his sale at Christie's it was knocked down amid hisses to a Mr. Harrison for sixty pounds. A little later still, at the close of the London Whistler Memorial Exhibition, it was bought for two thousand guineas by the National Arts Collection Fund, presented to the nation, and now hangs in the National Gallery. Surely, when they come to understanding, the English will begin to honour the great creative artists and not the gnat critics and penguin professors.

THE BEST-EQUIPPED OF ALL POLAR EXPEDITIONS.

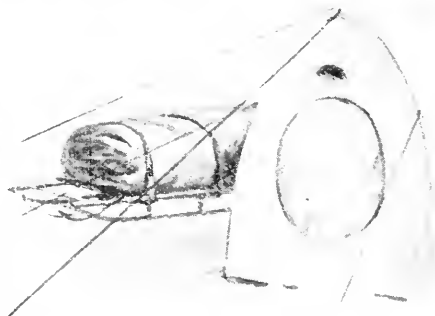
Popular Mechanics gives a most interesting account of some of the remarkable novel appliances which will be used by the Shackleton Expedition. The latest resources of science and invention have been enlisted to assist in the conquest of the Antarctic, but it is rather surprising not to find any mention of an aeroplane amongst the equipment.

'Air-propelled motor sledges on flat runners like skis, form the main reliance of the Antarctic expedition, headed by Sir Ernest Shackleton. In this and many other respects, the expedition is better equipped with modern devices than any previous body of Polar explorers has ever been. Details of food supply, shelter, and provisions for the general health and comfort of the mem-

Air-Propelled Motor Sledges
of the Shackleton Antarctic
Expedition are Steered
by Movable - Toothed
Sprags on Either Side,
Which Act as Drags



Interior of Folding Hood Tents
for Antarctic Exploration: They
can be Erected in the Severest
Windstorm and Shelter Six Men
Each, While They Weigh But 37
Pounds. Below is an Exterior
View of the New Tent



bers of the party have been worked out with scientific care, tested in the snow fields of northern Norway, and pronounced perfect.

Five motor sledges will be taken. One of these has a 55 h.p. gasoline engine, another a 40-h.p. These two have air propellers, but for use against head winds they are also equipped with positive-drive mechanism in the form of toothed drums attached at the rear to engage the ice and snow. In the extremely low temperatures of the Antarctic the snow becomes as loose as dry sand, so these sledges are mounted on flat, ski-like runners to prevent them from stalling. In a seven day test in Norway one of these air-propelled sledges, carrying six men, towed another sledge weighing 400 lb. and carrying two men, at a speed of from 15 to 20 miles an hour. Only a 30-h.p. motor was used, instead of the larger ones that have since been installed, with which a speed of 22 miles an hour up a 10 per cent. grade with three men on board has been made. The engines of these aer sledges are air-cooled, but the carburettor and intake pipes are inclosed in a sort of hot cupboard. This space has been made large to hold a number of suits of clothing, so that the explorers may dry out their underwear after each day's work—a luxury which previous expeditions have had to forego.

Two other sledges have the positive drive only, and are expected to cover about 50 miles a day each, as against the 75 to 100 miles of the aer sledges. The engines of these are water-cooled and the water jackets are piped to steam-cooking appliances, so that food may be heated while on the march. In addition to the sledges 100 Canadian dogs, capable of carrying 100 lbs. each, will be taken along.

The food problem of the Shackleton expedition is a particularly difficult one. Food supplies for the entire journey of 900 miles from Weddell Sea to the Pole, and 800 miles from the Pole to Ross Sea, must be taken along, whereas most

Polar explorers are able to make caches of food for use on the return journey. So a scientifically devised ration, on which the members of the party have already subsisted for days at a time, has been prepared, and enough packed in sausage skins, for easier transportation, to last through the 1700-mile trip. Each man will receive 36 oz. of food daily, instead of 3 lb., which is the average consumption. In this will be 6 oz. of lard, 4 oz. of sugar, and 2 oz. of a mixture of dried milk, protein and oats. The rest of the ration consists of Brazil nuts, almonds and beech nuts mixed with oil and dried milk.

Since there will be continuous daylight throughout the anticipated period of the exploration, the 24-hour day can be disregarded, and the plans are based on the division of time into arbitrary days of 19 hours each. One hour will be allowed for breakfast and breaking camp, then four hours of marching, an hour for lunch, four hours more of marching, two hours for dinner and making camp, and seven hours for sleep.

Instead of the 30 lb. tents, accommodating three men, which the Scott expedition carried, the Shackleton party is taking along waterproof and wind-proof "sleeping hoods," constructed on jointed frames much like the top of a touring motor car. One of these, weighing 37 lb., will shelter six men, and can be erected even in the teeth of the heaviest gale, assuring adequate shelter under all conditions.

The purpose of the expedition is the quest of geographic and scientific knowledge. The first 900 miles in from the sea will be over absolutely unexplored country, across a mountain range that is believed to be a southerly continuation of the Andes, and in which coal is thought to exist. New information that will throw light on the vagaries of the magnetic compass is also sought, as well as the adventure of taking one of the few big sporting chances left for mankind to take.



Fig. 1



Fig. 2.

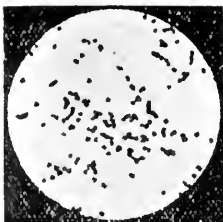


Fig. 3.

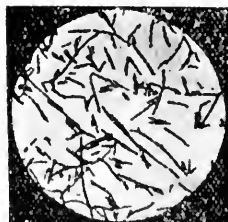


Fig. 4

ARTIFICIAL TRANSFORMATION OF MICROBES UNDER THE INFLUENCE OF THE ULTRA-VIOLET RAY.

PROVING THE MUTATION THEORY.

What is probably the most important biological discovery since that of the "mutations," observed by Professor de Vries, is that of the effect produced upon microbes by the ultra-violet rays. Recently the news was cabled from Paris that Mme. Victor Henri, a pupil of the Pasteur Institute, had by this means succeeded in transforming the microbe by which anthrax is caused into two new microbes, successively formed, and both entirely different from the normal microbe in shape and in the diseases they occasion.

This important discovery is described and commented upon illuminatingly in the well-edited department of scientific notes in *L'Illustration* (Paris). After remarking that in recent years many biologists have sought vainly to produce life, and others to make sudden transformations in species, the writer continues:

These last attempts, which are less pretentious, are inspired by the theory of mutation which is offered in opposition to the Darwinian theory of evolution by a recent school at whose head stands the Nobel prize winner, Professor de Vries, of Amsterdam. Whereas Darwin explains the transformation of species by a long series of insensible modifications, certain modern savants admit the possibility of sudden changes from one species to another. In support of their theory they cite the mutations which have been observed in butterflies and in certain species of plants. There has been an effort to provoke this curious phenomenon of brusque mutation artificially in the animal kingdom, by submitting the subjects of experiment to various influences: heat, humidity, poison, etc.

None of these experiments, however, had been attended with success until Mme. Henri accomplished the sensational feat described above. This achievement is not only noteworthy in itself, but it may have a profound and extensive influence in the modification of present biological and medical theories. We read:—

The microbe of anthrax is in the form of rods or "batonnets," as shown in our first illustration. If it is exposed for a few instants to the action of the ultra-violet rays it is modified more or less according to the conditions and duration of the exposure. These new forms, of which Figure 2 is an illustration, are not stable; the microbe returns quite soon to its primitive form. But if the action of the rays is prolonged for ten minutes the microbe changes its aspect; it becomes cocciform, as shown in Figure 3, and then filiform, as in Figure 4.

The two latter forms of the microbe are quite stable, and have in fact been preserved unaltered for nearly three months. Moreover they present characteristics so new, differing both from the original microbe and from each other, that it would seem we have here, not only a true mutation, but a double mutation. This is attested not only by the difference in form, but by the differences in the maladies to which they give rise.

A guinea-pig inoculated with the normal microbe death takes from ten to twenty days autopsy shows an enormous oedema at the point of inoculation, with an accumulation of microbes which are found also in the blood and in the spleen. Death is apparently produced by septicemia. With the filiform

microbe death takes from ten to twenty days to arrive. It does not produce any deformation of the tissues at the point of inoculation, and the number of microbes found in the blood or in the organs is infinitesimal. On the other hand, the pleura is inflamed and a number of small abscesses is observed in the internal organs, lungs, spleen, liver, kidneys. The impression given is of a poisoning produced by toxins. The malady produced by the cocciform microbe also differs from the normal anthrax, but it has not yet been sufficiently studied for its characteristics to be precisely defined. The cocciform and filiform microbes also react with iodine in opposite fashion, thus

classifying themselves in two entirely different categories. Hence Mme. Henri's discovery establishes for the first time this fact: It is possible to change, artificially and suddenly, a living organism into an organism of another species. Is this mutation, in the sense in which biologists understand the word? Or should this rapid transformation be considered, on the contrary, as an evolution which is comparatively slow, considering that its subjects are infinitely tiny? . . . It may be remarked further that this diminution of virulence in the anthrax microbe is in perfect accord with the well-known sterilising action of the ultra-violet rays.

ANABIOSIS.

"Anabiosis" is one of the many scientific terms which are defined in the general dictionaries in a sense differing more or less from that in which they are used in scientific literature. Etymology certainly supports the definition of this word found in the latest editions of the Century, New International, and Standard Dictionaries—viz., "resuscitation, recovery after suspended animation"—but the anabiosis which formed the subject of numerous remarkable memoirs by the late Russian biologist, P. Bachmetieff, extending back at least fifteen years from the date of his recent death, was itself a state of suspended animation—not the act of recovering therefrom. The term means, moreover, not a condition in which the vital functions are merely reduced to a low ebb—the so-called *vita minima*, exemplified in the feats of the Hindu fakirs who submit to burial for days or weeks, and are subsequently disinterred and resuscitated—but one in which, apparently, life absolutely ceases for the time being.

Anabiosis, in this sense, is a well-known phenomenon in the plant world, where dry seeds may, in some cases, be germinated after centuries of inactivity. There are also certain low forms of animal life, such as tardigrades and rotifers, which, if removed from their natural aqueous element, shrivel up and remain dormant for years, but are still capable of being re-activated by the application of moisture. In these cases the process producing anabiosis is desiccation. There is, however, another means of producing anabiosis—viz., refrigeration—and it is with this that the

name of Bachmetieff is inseparably associated.

A review of Bachmetieff's researches and their results is presented by Emile Gonault in the current number of *Nature*; in considering which it will also be convenient to cite certain remarks published a few months ago by Dr. Henri Bouquet in the *Monde Médical*, dealing especially with the proposed therapeutic applications of anabiosis.

Bachmetieff's earlier experiments, says M. Gonault, were made on butterflies.

The insect was placed in a vessel surrounded by a cold envelope, and the internal temperature of the insect was measured by a thermo-electric apparatus, the two electrodes of which were inserted in its body. On placing a butterfly in a vessel kept at a temperature of -20 deg. C., Bachmetieff observed that the temperature of the insect fell gradually to -9.3 deg. C., then rose abruptly to -1.7 deg. C., and finally a temperature of -20 deg. C.; Bachmetieff attributed the sudden rise in temperature to a phenomenon of superfusion rendered possible by the capillarity of the vessels containing the humours of the insect. According to this view, the sudden rise of temperature would be the result of the almost instantaneous freezing of all the liquids in the organism. He verified this hypothesis by determining the freezing point in the open air of the liquid contained in 500 butterflies, which was found to be -1.5 deg. C.; i.e., very nearly the temperature attained in the abrupt rise above noted.

If a butterfly were removed from the vessel before having undergone this sudden rise in temperature its revival was rapid, taking place in a few seconds, even if the insect's temperature had fallen in the vessel as low as -8 deg. C. When, however, the body tem-

perature had fallen to -9 deg., and had then undergone the rapid rise, the insect did not revive for several minutes after removal from the vessel. Again, if, after the sudden rise in temperature, the insect remained in the vessel until its temperature fell to -8 deg. or -9 deg. C., a much longer time was required for its recovery from anabiosis. Finally, if the second cooling were allowed to reach -10 deg. C., the insect definitely perished.

One might naturally suppose that death thus produced coincided with the complete congelation of all the tissues, but it appears that this is not the case. Bachmetieff fixes at -4.5 deg. C. the temperature below which, after the sudden warming, all the liquids in the body were solidified; hence between -4.5 deg. and -10 deg. C. the condition seemed to be one in which no vital activity existed, the circulation of the blood was impossible, and respiration was consequently useless—and yet the insect was not dead! According to a comparison of Bachmetieff, the insect in this state is strictly analogous to a clock the pendulum of which one arrests with the hand, and which, having been again set in motion, the clock resumes its ticking.

More or less similar results were obtained with flies and beetles. Last year the experimenter turned his attention to higher animals. Hibernating bats having a temperature (measured in the rectum) of $+24.40$ C. were subjected to the cooling process. The body temperature fell in the course of an hour to -2 deg. C., when an abrupt rise of temperature occurred, analogous to that observed in insects, though much less pronounced. If their temperature did not subsequently fall lower than -9 deg. C., the animals could be revived, respiration beginning about ten minutes after removal from the vessel. All animals cooled below -9 deg. C. perished.

These experiments possess a twofold interest; first, they give promise of throwing some light upon the now

utterly mysterious process of death; and, second, they may ultimately lead to numerous practical applications. Of those which Bachmetieff himself suggested, the most interesting is the proposed use of the anabiotic state as a cure for tuberculosis. The microbe of this disease is supposed to be unable to survive at a temperature below -6 deg. C. Bachmetieff's Utopian idea was to subject tuberculosis patients for a few days to a temperature of perhaps -7 deg. or -8 deg. C. Naturally, if this process is efficacious in tuberculosis, it might also be applied in other infectious diseases. On this subject, however, Dr. Bouquet says:

Is it possible to admit that at temperatures as low as those employed the vital functions, haematoses and oxidation, can continue to take place? And, if they do exist, why should the tubercle bacillus be incommenced to the degree alleged, by a lowness of temperature which leaves the economy, on the contrary, uninjured? It must be admitted that this is an obscure point which with difficulty admits of a solution. All the more so seeing that we have always and on every occasion been taught that the tubercle bacillus is extremely resistant, and that it can survive the most terrible biological tests. We know quite well that it is very difficult for us to act directly on the bacillus when it has invaded an organism, precisely because the agents capable of inflicting serious damage upon it are also terribly injurious to our own tissues.

Fully as curious, though perhaps less dangerous, are the other consequences which the Russian physiologist draws from his observations. He is inclined to believe that it would be possible to place in anabiosis animals which, during the winter, cost money to keep and produce nothing. It would thus be possible to deduct their cost and maintenance from the domestic budget, and to recall them to life when fine weather and the productive season returned. We might thus transport fish, game, poultry, etc., long distances, waking them up on arrival.

According to a number of magazine articles published last year this process of transporting fish is already in use in Europe.



HISTORY OF THE MONTH IN CARICATURE.

Oh, wad some Power the giftie gie us
To see oursels as ithers see us.—Burns

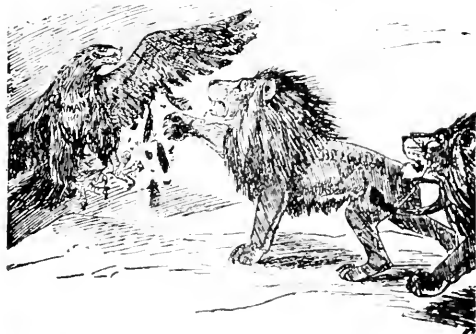


BRAVO, BELGIUM!

From "Punch," London, by special arrangement with Messrs. Bradburn, Agnew and Co.



HE CAN NEVER MANAGE IT ALONE, BUT HE
WILL STOP IT FOR AWHILE.



F.C.G., in the "Westminster Gazette."

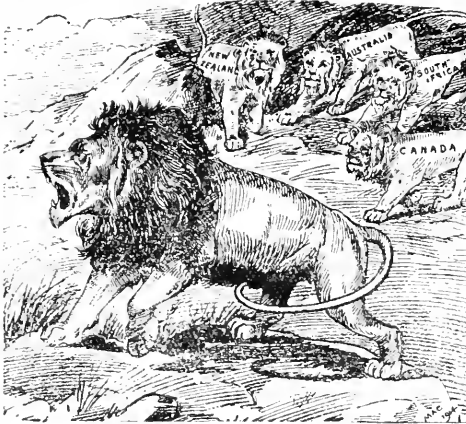
THE BELGIAN LION GIVES THE EAGLE A
SURPRISE.

The supply of German, Austrian and French papers has, of course, entirely ceased. Consequently this month we are not able to publish anything like the variety of caricatures we usually give. The war was only just beginning when the majority of those we reproduce were drawn.

As usual *London Punch* rises splendidly to the occasion, and gives expression of the general feeling about Germany's invasion of Belgium. The gallant fight made by the heroic Belgians is the subject of several cartoons. Sir Carruthers Gould is not as happy as usual in his work, and confusion arises



Punch.] THE POWER BEHIND. [London.
AUSTRIA (at the ultimatum stage): "I don't
quite like his attitude. Somebody must be back-
ing him."



THE YOUNG LIONS LISTEN TO THEIR
PARENT'S CALL.



Amsterdammer.
DEATH (to the Archduke Ferdinand): "You have
not died unavenged."



Carson and Redmond, Asquith and Law, all are
united in the common danger.

over the use of the Lion as the national emblem of Belgium. We are so accustomed to regard that beast as our peculiar property that many are surprised to learn that it is also Belgium's. The lion on the memorial on the field of Waterloo represents Belgium, not Britain, as tourists fondly imagine.

Punch's cartoon about Austria, Serbia and Russia appeared, of course, before the outbreak of hostilities, but it shows that Serbia was merely a pretext, a



CAUGHT BETWEEN BRITAIN AND RUSSIA.



THE MAD CENTAUR OF EUROPE.

pawn in the game. The way in which all parties dropped their differences, and the splendid manner in which the overseas dominions have rallied to the help



GRIMLY BROODING ON THE WRONG HE WROUGHT.



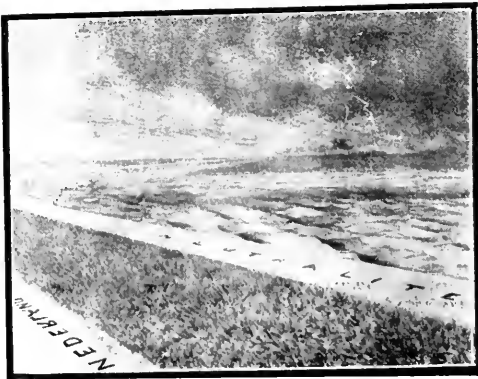
Liverpool Courier.
WAR'S GRIM SHADOW FALLS ATWART EUROPE



ON! ON! TO PARIS IN GLORIOUS MARCH!

of the motherland, naturally forms the subject of many cartoons, two of which we reproduce. The *Liverpool Courier* shows grim war casting its terrible shadow over Europe.

The *Amsterdammer* indicates that the real protector of Dutch neutrality is the



Amsterdammer.
HOLLAND'S DEFENDER.



EUROPE (awaking). "Hi! Stop robbing that nest!"



Hojas Selectas

[Barcelona.

THE BULL FIGHT BETWEEN UNCLE SAM AND MEXICO.

(It is one thing to enter the arena with bravado and confidence, and another thing to leave it in the same way—a Spanish view).



GHOST OF FRENCH SOLDIER TO FRENCH GENERAL: "Beware the mistakes of 1870-71."



News.

[Baltimore.

THE FEDERAL CAR GOES RIGHT BY!

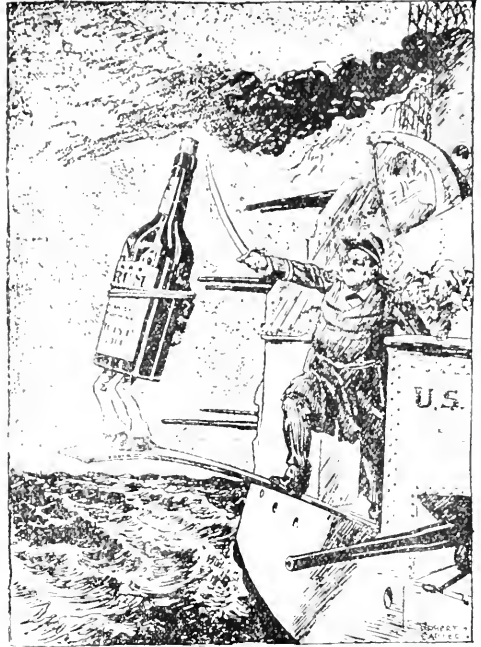
Again the President reminded a delegation of women that suffrage is a State question.



MARS AND DISEASE SET FORTH ON THEIR DREAD MISSIONS.

sea. Holland has not an army capable for a moment of defending her territory, but the cutting of the dykes would let in a force no invader could resist.

We have to turn to the United States for more humorous cartoons this month. Those dealing with the war are naturally too grimly realistic to allow any scope for the usually nimble pencils of the European artists. The *Ohio State Journal* makes merry over the return of the "invalided" Mr. Roosevelt to the States. The *Evening Sun* shows rum walking the plank. No liquor is now supplied in the United States navy. President Wilson will have nothing to do with the Suffragette movement. It is not a Federal matter, he declares, but one the States have to decide. The Spanish papers naturally belittle Uncle Sam's efforts in Mexico. *Hojas Seleccionadas*, of Barcelona, shows him defeated in the bull ring.



[Evening Sun.] [New York.]
JOHN BARLEYCORN WALKING THE PLANK.
The order of the Secretary of the Navy, prohibiting alcoholic drink in the United States Navy, went into effect on July 1.



[Ohio State Journal.] [Columbus.]
"ROOSEVELT DID NOT POSSESS HIS FORMER STRENGTH AND VIGOUR"
according to some reports, but he has given vigorous blows in various directions since his return to the United States.

NOTABLE BOOKS OF THE MONTH.

BOOKS ABOUT GERMANY.

Recent events lend special interest to books on Germany and the Kaiser, which have been published during the last few months. Sir Alfred Mond, in "Questions of To-Day," writing upon Britain's commercial relations with Germany, says:—

Could England be jealous of Germany (it is said) when the closeness of commercial relations and traffic between the two countries is proved beyond question by their statistics? England is Germany's largest customer, and Germany England's largest customer. Germany has in England, in British India, and in the British Colonies that have not as yet been granted self-government, the most valuable free market in the world, in which it can dispose of its goods, not only on the same conditions as all other foreign competitors, but also on an equality with British competitors. England, on the other hand, has in Germany, notwithstanding its Protection, a market larger than that provided by any other country.

In these circumstances it is difficult to conceive how it can be contended that England is jealous of Germany's industrial development, as surely a business man is always glad when he sees a good customer placed in a position to give him larger orders. Germany in 1911 took from us goods to the value of nearly fifty-seven and a-half millions of pounds. As a matter of fact, politicians and diplomats must make a reality of our mutual desire for friendly relations.

SCIENTIFIC CO-OPERATION

The introduction by Ernest Schuster to "The German Year Book," just published, deals with the business relations between Germany and England, and says:—

Commercial intercourse is not, however, the only connecting link between the two nations. There are many other fields of human activity in which their co-operation is almost a necessity. The fight against the destructive diseases which make vast tracts of country in various parts of the world uninhabitable, such as the sleeping sickness, or the many diseases caused by noxious insects, is a conspicuous instance. In this fight the joint action of German and English science has already produced remarkable results. In the province of elementary and higher education each country can learn many things from the other; on the field of philanthropy and social work the value of the juxtaposition of the experiences of both countries and of the consideration of these experiences in joint consultation is becoming more and more recognised every day.

Such indisputable assertions as these have become part and parcel of our common thought, as presented in the literature of the period. Can we equally find statements which will throw light upon the awful cataclysm which has dissolved this attitude of mutual help?

Professor Sarolea, in "The Anglo-German Problem," points out that there is a strong line of difference between the South and Western Germans, who are idealists, and the Prussian, who is a realist and materialist. To Prussia is due the fact that Germany has become the storm centre, the volcanic zone in international politics, because she is reactionary and increasingly narrow and parochial.

Mr. Willis, in "What Germany Wants," (Paul, 2/- net), speaks more strongly still. He says:—

Germany wants a place in the sun. The sun being a source of all life on this planet and centre of the solar system, she is not content to remain

Fixed, like a plant, on his peculiar spot
To draw nutrition, propagate, and rot.

The question is: What is the exact position, or positions, that Germany would like to claim in the sun? If to obscure the sun's orbit and warm life-giving rays from France or England, or both—well, naturally, objections will be made, and such objections, dark forebodings warn us, may only be made good at the cost of tens of thousands of human lives, leaving desolate and deserted thousands of homes, where peace and contentment now exist. Later, he says:

Germany must get compensation for her vast expenditure on armaments, and the compensation must be of such a character as will gratify the restless ambition of her united people and balance the expenditure in armaments and the ready sacrifice German people have made in the past to perfect those armaments, which, at the moment, are Germany's great asset. With this great asset behind her, Germany must gain something by diplomacy or hazard a war—bloody and relentless though it may be—to get what the Powers may fail to give her, and what her

growth in people, in wealth, and in world-wide importance have caused her to yearn for.

A WORKER FOR PEACE (?).

Curiously enough, Alfred Fried, the Austrian Nobel Prizeman, "The German Emperor and the Peace of the World," Hodder, 6/-, while contending that the Kaiser's aim is wholly pacific, and that his great object is international co-operation, the development of industries, and of international trading, having brought the interests of all nations together, uniting them more closely, yet gives us a peep into the mind of the Emperor, as to how that co-operation is to be brought about when he says: "There are also not wanting voices which encourage him to proceed to deeds, and to organise peace on a new basis, to create a universal Hohenzollern Empire." Could it be that the Kaiser had some idea of stopping the increase of armaments by bringing all nations under his sway? If so, what a promising start he made when his first step took him into a neutral and unprotected country, which his ancestors had solemnly sworn to hold inviolate!

THE GERMAN DREAD OF RUSSIA.

Stanley Shaw, in "William of Germany" (Methuen, 7/6 net), says:—

The German Emperor believes and assumes his people to believe that the Hohenzollern Monarch is specially chosen by Heaven to guide and govern a folk entrusted to him, as the talent was entrusted to the steward in Scripture. This fear of the loss of Polish Prussia may have helped to blind the man who has always professed such goodwill to Great Britain.

THE SUPERFICIAL KAISER.

Miss Anne Topham, who was governess to the Kaiser's daughter, does not give us so high an estimate of his character. She says, in "Memories of the Kaiser's Court" (Methuen, 10/6 net):—

Nobody has ever accused the Emperor of being a diplomatist. He himself believes that he is very astute, and can see farther

than most men. He is, so to speak, a little blinded by his own brilliancy, by the versatility of his own powers, which are apt to lead him astray. He has never acquired the broad, tolerant outlook of a man who tries to view things from another's standpoint. He has, in fact, only one point of view—his own—and a certain superficiality characterises his thought. He has a marvellous memory for facts, deduces hasty inferences, is too prompt in decision, relies perhaps too entirely on his own judgment and his own personal desires and experiences; he does not, in fact, give himself time and opportunity to think things out, to weigh consequences, and he has, unfortunately, few really great minds around him. Conscientious, hard-working men in plenty, but the man of imagination, of original conception, of new ideas—and there are many such men in Germany—does not seem to be admitted to his councils. A great statesman is not at hand just now, one who can impress his thoughts on the Emperor's receptive mind and guide his activities, the wonderful forces of his mind, into the best avenues for their development.

In spite of his belief in the special mission of the Hohenzollern family to carry out Divine purposes, an idea not uncorroborated by the course of history, he is in respect more democratic than his Court.

THE BOOK OF FATE.

A notice of books on the situation which omitted the White Paper on the European crisis would be like "Hamlet," with the Prince left out. Every Britisher should obtain and carefully read this grim and tragic series of the telegrams of the Foreign Office, and the Ambassadors of the Great Powers one to another. It has been aptly described as "The Book of Fate." No one reading this bare and unadorned record could doubt that for Britain there was no peaceful path left; though from the study of the various books referred to above the conclusion is strongly forced upon us that no such country, and no such monarch as are herein described will easily yield to superior force. Even the Social Democrats may prove a strength instead of a weakness to Prussia. Hence, if the fight be long, and the issues varying, we must gird up our loins and sternly resolve to do our duty.

PRINCE VON BÜLOW ON GERMANY.

FALSIFIED THEORIES.

The former Imperial Chancellor of Germany, Prince von Bülow's "Imperial Germany," contains many passages of peculiar significance. Tracing the political regeneration of Germany, he writes :

In the year 1871 the number of inhabitants dwelling within the new German Empire was (in round numbers) 41 millions, in 1900 56 millions; now the number reached is 65 million. This increased population could only be provided for by winning a prominent place for German industry in the markets of the world. . . . Thus the sea has become a factor of more importance in our national life than ever before in our history. It has become a vital nerve which we must not allow to be severed if we do not wish to be transformed from a rising and youthfully vigorous people into a decaying and ageing one. . . . Just as the Army prevents any wanton interruption of the course of our Continental policy, so the Navy prevents any interruption in the development of our world policy.

NO CATSPA.W.

Writing of the situation during the Russo-Japanese War, he says : --

We have no intention, of course, to allow Japan to use us as a catspaw. It would have very considerably facilitated matters not only for Japan, but also for England, if, for the sake of their interests in the Far East, we had allowed ourselves to be thrust forward against Russia. . . . A conflict between Germany and England would be a great misfortune for both countries, for Europe and mankind in general. Ever since the day I undertook the affairs of the Foreign Office I have been convinced that such a conflict would never come to pass—

- i. If we built a fleet which could not be attacked without very grave risk to the attacking party.
- ii. . . If we did not overheat our marine boiler.
- iii. If we allowed no Power to injure our reputation or dignity.
- iv. If we allowed nothing to make an irreparable breach between us and England.

[But the fleet has been attacked because Germany itself injured her reputation and thought England would also tear up treaties.]

European history has seldom, if ever, seen an alliance of such strength and durability

as the Triple Alliance . . . there has never been any ground for the hopes of its ill-wishers and the fears of its well-wishers with regard to the durability of the Triple Alliance.

SOCIAL DEMOCRATS.

Prince von Bülow has much else to say of keen interest—indeed his book sheds a strong light upon the present situation, and future eventualities. For instance, in speaking of the Social Democrats, he says :—

We owe our best successes to the gift of subordination to discipline. The Prussian State was created by discipline, as were our Army and our Public Services. That which other nations did in the heat of enthusiasm we often achieved by the power of discipline. The war of 1866 was not popular; the troops were not urged on by patriotic enthusiasm, as was the case half a century earlier, but started on their march to Bohemia in silent submission to the orders of the commanding officers, and under the rule of discipline achieved victories as glorious as were those of their fathers under the inspiration of enthusiasm.

THE DREAD OF RUSSIA.

And of equal interest in view of Russia's offer to the Poles are the statements :—

The Poles have forfeited their right to independence, after being for centuries incapable of creating a strong State on the basis of law and order. . . . Before a single foot of Polish land had come into the possession of the Germans, the Great King, at a time when the nationality problem was still unknown, characterised Prussia's future task of civilisation as a Germanisation.

Again he says :—

Shall we permit the Eastern domains—i.e., Posen, and certain parts of Upper Silesia and East Prussia—to slip once more from the grasp of German nationality, or not? Everyone who has national German feelings will answer that this must never happen, that it is the duty and the right of the Germans to maintain our national ownership in the East of Prussia (Prussian Poland), and, if possible, to increase it.

These statements give one strong reason for the Kaiser's dread of Russia.

PROFESSOR RENTOUL : POET.

"From Far Lands: Poems of North and South." By "Gervais Gage" (J. Laurence Rentoul). (Macmillan, 6/-.)

These poems may be regarded as the parerga of one of the boldest and most brilliant of Australian publicists. Professor Rentoul has a reputation as a "bonny fighter" throughout Australia, and many of his verses may be regarded as the poetic oratory of Australian Liberalism. His passionate love of nature, however, and especially of nature as it survives in memories of the Ulster of his childhood, inspires his verses no less than his passion for liberty, and the vigour and sincerity of his expression of his moods called forth the praise of one who differed from him in politics like Professor Dowden, who wrote, upon receiving copies of some of the poems:

Your poems have brought enlargement, sun, air, sea, space, to a prisoner whose breath is, at present, rather scanty, and whose gaoler is bronchitis. They are admirably strong, and very much alive, and very unlike the poetry which is at this moment taken as typically Irish—which has its own kind of shadowy beauty, but not the strong pulse of the general life in it. . . . I am struck by their vitality and vigour—vigour of imagination embodying itself in vigour of versification.

One of the most interesting of the poems is "Sam Perry," which may be described as a biographical poem concerning an Ulster working-man poet and inventor, who seems to have been rather a heretical Presbyterian in his youth:—

In the Auld Licht Kirk, when the sermons
drear

Were your rack and your purgatorial time,
The song of the birds and the brooklets
clear

With the beat of your heart made joyous
chime.

Till the pulpit-banger, above your head,
Went torturing Scripture to prove it plain
That the Father of Christ on the Cross that
bled

Was a tyrant Will—Man's free-will vain—

And "elected some" to a future bliss
And to singing psalms to a harp of gold;
O Sam, you shuddered and yawned at this,
And you blew your nose with a sudden
cold!

"By an Austral River" is at once a memory and prophecy, and expresses the author's eager love of nature better, perhaps, than anything else in the book. The following verses are characteristic of its quality:—

Above me, in the heavens the lark
Thrills with his song the blue;
And o'er the tree-tops hark, O, hark
The hum of bees I knew!

O, the sweet murmurous hum they made,
All round my boyhood's door,
O'erhead in the green opulent shade
Of beech and sycamore!

On new strange flowers they now can flit
With the same drowsy voice:
No pang of memory, exquisite,
Haunts them as they rejoice.

The triumph of the lark's glad throat
Is jubilant and clear
As when it mocked the thrush's note
In my young raptured ear.

The love-poetry is less successful, but one poem in this kind strike the attention:—

Why did it flash at the window there,
In the light and shade of the sunset glow,
The gleam of the face and the glint of the
hair

As they flashed on me years and years ago?

It mattered not for the wind or rain,
We were young, just then, as I passed in
the street;

Loyal each eye at the window-pane
The gleam and the glance my gaze would
meet.

The face then paled, and at eve was gone;
Dark as I passed was the window-pane;

Oh, if that face at the window shone
"Twould matter naught were it wind or
rain!

The passionate rhetoric of his patriotic and democratic poems is sure to awaken echoes in the breasts of his countrymen. People throughout the Empire will find in it the expression of some of the noblest ideals of Australian democracy.

NAPOLEON "SET FREE" FROM ST. HELENA.

The French Chamber of Deputies recently appropriated 20,000 francs for the purpose of beginning the restoration of the ruins of Longwood House, on the Island of St. Helena, where the great Napoleon was exiled and died. This has refreshed the memories of a number of Frenchmen, and brought to light many unpublished documents and personal reminiscences. M. Albert Calmet has written a book entitled "Napoleon Delivré" (Napoleon Set Free). This has not yet been formally published, but the first two chapters have appeared as articles in *La Revue*. They furnish a very vivid impression of the exhumation of Napoleon's remains, and their embarkation for France in 1840 for final burial in Paris.

On the 15th of October of that year—to be accurate, a little after midnight on the evening of the 14th—the twenty-fifth anniversary of the arrival of Napoleon at St. Helena on the British ship "Northumberland," the work of exhumation was begun. Former Grand Marshal Bertrand and General Gourgaud, with their men Forfet and Coursot, spent the evening with the hospitable Dickson family, who occupied the nearest residence to "The Tomb." General Bertrand had lived in this house a quarter of a century before. We begin to quote at the point where the writer describes the lantern-lit journey to the tomb.

The night was cold and damp, a real St. Helena night. The eternal storm that beats its rocky coast rolled groaning and sobbing into the stony ravine. . . . There must often be veritable Walpurgis nights on St. Helena. This night, while damp and misty, was made somewhat less lugubrious by the faint moonlight. . . . At the beginning of the steep, rocky path leading to the valley they were halted by the sharp order of the sentinel. Gourgaud, having made himself known, was permitted to pass on into the domain of the dead. The most profound silence reigned. Nothing but the heavy mist and the tang of the cypress trees that clutched the throat.

Guided by voices to the shelter house of the old soldiers who guard the en-

trance to the Tomb, General Gourgaud found there a group of shadowy figures: Frenchmen from the Jamestown Mission and the representatives of the King, Count Rohan Chabot, also Captain Alexander of the British Queen's Engineer Corps, besides soldiers and workmen.

At midnight sharp all those who were permitted to witness the exhumation of the Imperial remains were admitted to the enclosure. Besides the French commander, there were General Gourgaud, Baron Emanuel de Las-Casas, former Valet de Chambre Marchand, the Abbé Coquereau, with two choir boys, the commanders of the ships "Belle Poule," "Favourite" and "Oreste," the physician Guillard, commissioned to make the medical report, and the old servants from Longwood. Besides these there were the Chief Justice of the Island, the old storekeeper, who had furnished the funeral paraphernalia nineteen years before, and a locksmith. The work of exhumation began at a quarter after midnight, and from thence on the little group of Frenchmen "stood tense, a prey to the deepest emotion."

In the dead silence of the night the first dry strokes of the pick-axes fell. In the centre of the group a uniformed figure, the English commander, brilliant in gold lace, is seen now and again by the light of the torches held by a dozen of the soldiers of the 1st Infantry Regiment. The mist had become a fine rain, and everyone stands shivering. The Frenchmen reverently bend down to pick up relics, the flowers and plants growing thickly around the grave. The first flagstones are soon removed and the wrought iron grill that has protected the sepulchre from defacement through nineteen long years is prized out. It falls on the sodden ground with a dull sound of chains. Mr. Darling, the storekeeper, points out the stone covering the head. The rain continues and the cold is penetrating. The Frenchmen's teeth chatter. The priest is not in the least impressed. He keeps jotting down notes in his journal. One gathers from these pages a vivid picture of that memorable night. The weird light, the mysterious figures grouped about on the background of the two immense shelter tents—flapping in the wind and shimmering ghostly; the click of muskets as sentinels are changed. . . . A sharp, incisive voice issuing com-

mands the while, and through all the dry strokes of the picks against the stones. Men in red or white uniforms appear and disappear, and things are thrown down with a dull thud. In all this subdued agitation the priest alone stands holding the silver crucifix, calm and serene, although he avowed later that shivers ran down his spine.

The stones having been removed and work begun on the earth which seemed to have caved in, a breathless moment followed for fear that the cement vault might have given way.

But no, it is intact, and from three o'clock until six in the morning, the arduous work continues. Finally, the long, narrow stone that covers the casket is discovered. Suddenly some, forgetting the solemnity of the occasion, break the silence by conversation and are gravely reminded, in English, by Captain Alexander, that scarcely six inches separate them from Napoleon's coffin.

The description of the opening of the casket is very graphic.

Now day begins to break and casts a sad white light upon the impressive scene. Fifty men, after long and heavy labour, succeeded in removing the last huge flagstone, and at half after nine o'clock the casket is revealed. Suddenly memory flies back to that morning in May, nineteen years before, when the same casket with its precious burden was lowered into the grave. Many who had shared the Emperor's captivity were there then, as they were now. Bertrand Marchand, the servitors and the inmates of Longwood. The gentle Madame Bertrand, who had knelt at the edge of the grave, weeping bitterly, had long since gone to her eternal rest, but many of the English officers and the storekeeper Darling were there, and in those far-off days, as now, a priest stood blessing the remains. . . .

The casket had been carried to one of the tents awaiting the arrival of Governor Middlemore and his staff. It was composed of four compartments, one of mahogany next one of lead, then again one of mahogany, and, finally, the outer cover of zinc. Strange to relate, it is the same workman who had soldered the casket in 1821 who now, with hammer and chisel, works the covers off. How those blows shake the nerves of the Frenchmen standing by! The fear of what might be discovered augments the tension to breaking point. At last the last cover is removed. Those who are to identify Napoleon come forward and gaze spellbound. Reverently Dr. Guillard begins to roll up the silken covering that still hides the body, but he stops almost immediately. A strange thing seems to have happened which chills the blood in the veins

of the witnesses. The body moves; they could swear to it! The wind stirring the soft covering and the overwrought nerves of the spectators had completed the fevered hallucination. All realise it in a second, and Dr. Guillard continues his task of uncovering the body of Napoleon. It is really Napoleon himself who appears to those who know him, not an unrecognisable skeleton, nor a mere handful of dust. Gourgaud sobs aloud at the sight of the beloved chief. "One must have loved the Emperor as I did to understand all the emotion that wrung my heart when we saw the well-remembered features of our hero!" On that pale, chill morning, under the flapping tent, Napoleon, lying in the metal casket in the ebony sarcophagus brought over from France, seems but asleep. The features, intact, show but little alteration at the nose and cheek bones; the head, close-cropped, looked very large, and the noble forehead prominent. The mouth retains its beautiful curve, and almost its smile, disclosing three perfect white teeth. He wears the green uniform of the Chasseurs. The buttons are blackened, but the red trimmings seem like new. The cord of Legion Honour and the cross of the Legion and the Iron Crown shine upon the breast. The gold epaulettes are slightly tarnished, and the tall riding boots broken at the toe, showing part of the feet gleaming white. His white buckskins and well-known hat are there, also the silver urn containing the heart. The right hand is almost hidden at his side, but the left, supple, almost life-like, lies on his breast just as Marshal Bertrand had placed it after having raised it for the last time to his lips. "O miracle of death!" exclaims the writer. "Here was Napoleon, neither destroyed by lying through nineteen long years in the dampest spot of the island, neither changed nor aged by time, which none who survived him could escape. Here was the Emperor still looking youthful, and here was Bertrand, a venerable white-haired man, and even Gourgaud, now turning grey, he who had been a mere stripling when he served the chief.

The rest of the story is soon told:—

The ebony casket is finally closed and the mortal remains of the Emperor borne in state to where the French vessels were anchored. There awaited Prince Joinville at the head of his staff. At half after three o'clock in the afternoon, Governor Middlemore consigned the body of Napoleon, in all due form, to the son of King Louis Philippe. As soon as the casket was placed on board the flagship "*Belle Poule*," a magnificent imperial flag, fashioned by the deft fingers of the young ladies of Jamestown, was hoisted, and simultaneously all the fleet unfurled its national colours. . . . It was not a funeral cortege, that which bore the Emperor back to France, but a glorious and joyful return of Napoleon, liberated, to his home.

The Scenic Beauties of Tasmania.

LAUNCESTON AND THE NORTH.

Launceston is the front door of Tasmania for visiting Victorians, and the fastest passenger boat in the Australian trade plies there, making three trips a week for the seven months—October: April. The distance from Melbourne is so short that it may really be dubbed a ferry service, for the "Loongana" leaves Melbourne at about four o'clock in the afternoon, lands passengers in Launceston for breakfast, and returns in a few hours on the back journey after arrival of the express from Hobart. The time occupied in the straits is about eleven hours.

LAUNCESTON A CENTRE.

Most visitors make Launceston their headquarters for some time, for it is an important centre. Express trains run daily to the capital, and to the North-west, and there is also a daily service to

the popular North-east coast by two different routes. Launceston is also a starting point for such trips as the Great Lake, Mole Creek caves (day trip), Denison Gorge, the famous Tamar Valley orchard country, and hosts of other places.

Launceston itself is a very picturesque little city of about 25,000 inhabitants, situated on the beautiful river Tamar, about 40 miles from the mouth. The suburbs stretch away to the surrounding hills, whence magnificent panoramic views may be obtained.

THE LOCAL TOURIST ASSOCIATION.

Every facility is given for getting about, for the Northern Tourist Association arranges brake, motor, train, and river trips and everything possible is done to ensure the convenience and comfort of the visitor. As many as ten days can be spent in "doing" Launce-



CATARACT GORGE, LAUNCESTON, IN FLOOD.

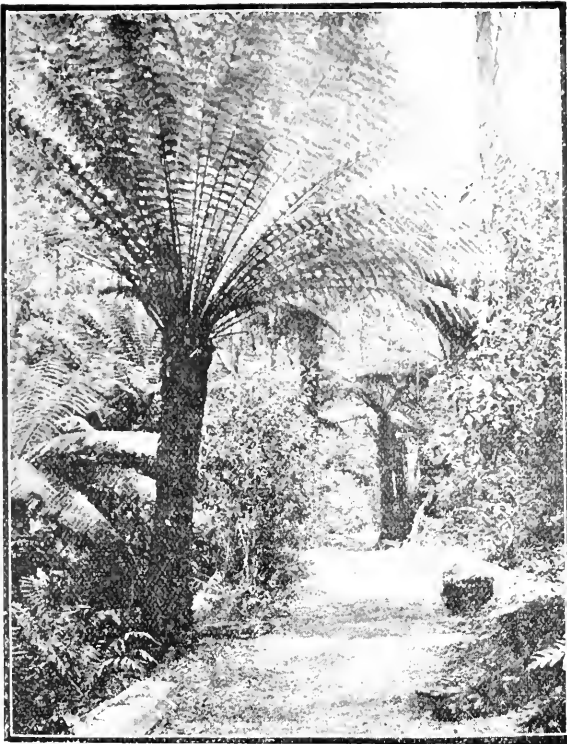
ton and surroundings, and a detailed itinerary is issued embracing this period, with one or more different outings for every day.

THE CATARACT GORGE.

This alone is well worth visiting Launceston for, and something more than mere print or photographs is needed to convey any idea of its beauties. No other place in the Commonwealth has such a sight within ten minutes' walk of the city centre. The Gorge is formed by the South Esk River, which rushes between lofty cliffs to its junction with the Tamar. A path, substantially railed, is cut alongside the stream; and shrubs, grasses and ferns afford a peaceful contrast to the tumbling stream below. The path continues for about a mile, when a spacious concert ground is reached. Thence a suspension bridge may be crossed, leading to a path to the electric power station - another beautiful sight - or to a return road to the city in variation of the Gorge path. It is quite safe to say that no one could possibly be disappointed with his first visit to Launceston's Cataract Gorge.

OTHER BEAUTY SPOTS.

There are so many outings to be enjoyed from Launceston, both near and far, that a special guide-book is needed to contain mention of them, but one in particular may be noted here, viz., Denison Gorge picnic grounds, 30 miles away on the North-Eastern Railway. Cheap trips are run every day from Launceston



DENISON GORGE.

(46). This is a romantic spot, composed of an immense gorge, through which a creek runs, and there is a dense foliage of forest trees, shrubs, and magnificent tree-ferns. Altogether, no more attractive summer picnicking spot than Denison Gorge could well be imagined.

Launceston is the headquarters of the Northern Fisheries Association, which has done so much to make the island the attraction that it is to anglers. From the hon. secretary (Mr. C. H. Harrison), or from any of the members, reliable information can be obtained as to where and how best to ensure good catches. In the Tasmanian Government office in Melbourne is a brown trout, weighing 11½ lbs., caught in the North Esk last season on the spinner. St. Patrick's River, 12 miles away, is a noted fishing and hunting resort, and there are also the South Esk and other streams. Further afield there is fishing galore. There is the Great Lake, the Meander at Deloraine, the Esk at Longford, Lakes Sorell and Crescent, and, 60 miles from Launceston, Lake Leake, absolutely the best Rainbow fishing resort in the Commonwealth. Last season nearly three tons of trout were caught there, averaging over 4½ lbs. per fish.

Special guide-books to Launceston and the North, Fisheries Reports, accommodation lists, and other information in detail may be obtained by calling at or writing to the Tasmanian Government office, 50 William-st., Melbourne.



A Remarkable Public School in America.

BY B. O. FLOWER.

Heretofore the most marked advance in teaching methods since the rise of popular education has had to do with the very young and the so-called defectives. Since Froebel's innovation, perhaps the greatest progress in the teaching of the very young and backward children has resulted from the painstaking pioneer work of Dr. Edward Seguin, and the important extension of his theories and their practical demonstration by Mme. Maria Montessori.

At the present time the more advanced pupils in the public schools are beginning to receive the serious attention of practical educators, and innovations of great importance to the rising generation are being successfully introduced in progressive centres.

PRACTICAL IDEALISM IN POPULAR EDUCATION.

The High School of Practical Arts, of Boston, a public school for girls, affords a fine example of this silent revolutionary movement that is one of the most inspiring signs of the hour. It is but one of several educational innovations born of a growing realisation on the part of thoughtful educators that the old system of intellectual training fails to meet the vital demands of a democratic state and an advancing civilisation.

To understand the spirit of the new movement and appreciate its practical value for the young of to-day one has but to study a representative new school

and compare it with the old intellectual methods. For this reason I am taking the Boston High School of Practical Arts as an illustration of the broadening scope of popular education, as here we find a concrete example of the way, in a democratic state, a system essential to popular interest can be quickly modified, improved, and rendered efficient when its shortcomings are recognised.

Headmaster Herbert S. Weaver, to whom the remarkable success of the school is so largely due, is a practical idealist, whose vision is concerned with making popular education conserve the real needs of the common life in a democratic state. Besides supplying a solid foundation for the development of broad culture in such a way as to make the pupils love the studies that lead them along the highway of history, mathematics, literature and science this school affords practical industrial training in domestic science, making the girls skilled in all the varied activities of the home; while for those who wish to enter business life special classes are provided in designing, dressmaking and millinery.

The new building into which the school has recently moved is one of the handsomest and best-equipped educational structures in the city. Here the pupils work under ideal conditions, with exceptional facilities for practical experiments in chemistry, physics, and domestic science.

The academic or general studies include history, embracing civil govern-

To have other than the best when the best is to be had, is the wisdom of the unwise.

ALL men who smoke, smoke for pleasure.

Most of them can detect quality, or lack of it, in their tobacco—have a palate that appreciates fineness of flavour, a nose that enjoys a pleasing aroma, and a tongue that protests when scorched by a hot tobacco.

If they but tried Chairman for a week they would recognise its exceptional quality as a pipe tobacco—its superiority in flavour, in aroma, and in coolness over lower priced tobaccos—its equality, if no more, to any tobacco however high in price.

Yet there are many who do not smoke it : some who have not tried it and some who prefer to save the few pence a week it costs more than a cheap tobacco.

There is some hope for the former, but the latter——

The pleasure of the pipe at its best is the least costly and the most enduring of life's little pleasures.

To knowingly rob oneself of it : to put up with an inferior form of it is false economy—the wisdom of the unwise.

True economy in pipe smoking is the purchase, at the lowest price, of the tobacco that provides complete satisfaction, *i e.*, Chairman.

The three strengths in which it is packed meet the tastes of most smokers.

For the Australasian market Chairman is packed in $\frac{1}{4}$ lb. airtight tins in the original medium strength, and also in mild and full strengths, and is sold by all leading tobacconists at 3 - per tin.



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ment, language including rhetoric, composition and literature, algebra and geometry, chemistry and physics. These are so taught as to compel the interest of the pupil. Take history, which is broadly treated in such a way as to awaken interest and stimulate further specific study on the part of the pupil. Beginning with primitive man, the children study the great periods of human life, coming down from prehistoric ages to the present hour. Now, instead of pursuing the old, and, to many, dry-as-dust, methods, the interest of the pupil is stimulated by numerous pictures, charts, maps, and drawings illustrating all phases of the life of the people during the age in question.

Here, for example, is a class in Greek history. The important outline in the chronicle of the different states is supplemented by pictures showing the life, the pastimes, industries, artistic advance, architectural triumphs, and the homes and home life, together with pictures of the master spirits of the different periods. Then the child is expected to put herself in the place of a Greek girl of the age and write a diary of daily happenings and impressions of the passing show as it would have been noted had she lived in the time about which she is studying. Here the eye, imagination, reason, and memory are all brought into action in such a manner that the pupil is fascinated, while the history of past epochs is so visualised as never to be forgotten, and what is more, the child is here getting a solid foundation for historical research which, if she has the taste and aptitude, will lead her to broaden her culture in the coming years, while giving interest to all things connected with the era studied.

In much the same general way pupils are led along the pathway of literature, their interest being so stimulated in the authors and their works, enviroing conditions and the age in which they wrote that in the coming years the best literature will hold a compelling charm for those who have been introduced to the best thought of the age.

Physics and chemistry are taught by practical demonstration, which, of

course, gives special charm to these important subjects.

Though this school is not intended to fit students to take the regular curriculum of the universities and colleges, nevertheless the training is such that its graduates wishing to go farther along certain lines and to pursue special courses are able to do so in such important institutions as Simmons College of Boston, the Teachers' College of Columbia University, the State Normal School of Massachusetts, and the Normal Art School of Boston.

TRAINING FOR HOME LIFE.

The industrial training is of special interest, as it is one of the new departures in public-school education. Here special attention is given to domestic science, and the economics vital to homemaking. The girls are taught housekeeping in a most comprehensive manner. The training for the first two years, which all pupils are expected to take, is briefly summarised as follows:

Cooking.

Practice.—Methods of cooking, applied to beverages, cereals, vegetables, legumes, milk, fish, eggs, meat, cheese, baking powder mixtures, and bread. Advanced cooking, including the comparative effects of different methods on the same and similar foodstuffs; desserts; meat substitutes; cooking and serving of menus suitable for luncheons or dinners, with special reference to proper combinations of foods.

Theory.—Foodstuffs used, considered under the following heads:—Source, nutritive values, choice, cost, storage, methods, of preparation, chemical composition, food botany, source and nature of food adjuncts, buying and care of staples.

Housewifery.

Building of fires; care of gas and coal ranges; cleaning paint; washing windows; cleaning of metals, including silver, care of sink, refrigerator, and garbage cans; choice and care of cooking utensils; methods of dish-washing; daily care of bedrooms and bathroom; table-setting and serving of food; laundry work, including mending and sorting of clothes, removing stains, washing of white and coloured cotton and linen fabrics and flannels, starching, plain ironing.

A SELF-SUSTAINING COOKING SCHOOL.

The third and fourth-year courses give a thorough training in the higher branches of domestic science and are designed for those expecting to specialise in the work. Here particular attention is given to instruction in canning

and preserving, fancy cooking, and the serving of formal and course luncheons and dinners. Catering for large numbers constitutes a part of the courses, while much attention is given to proper combination of food materials from a hygienic and nutritive standpoint; dietaries for invalids; adulterations of foods; results and prevention of bacterial action in food; the principles of dietetics; calculations of the caloric value of foods and food combinations; planning of dietaries based on 100 caloric portions; estimates of the actual and comparative costs of common food-stuffs.

It is held that every woman who is to become a wife and home-maker should have a thorough knowledge of domestic science, whether the home duties devolve upon her or whether she is to be merely the directing head; while there is a steadily growing demand for thoroughly trained teachers of domestic science and for persons competent to direct cooking and catering establishments.

The luncheon service of this school is unique in that *it pays the entire expense of the department*, excepting the salaries of the teachers. Heretofore one great objection to this practical education was the cost of foodstuffs required in class instruction.

"So far as I know," said Mr. Weaver, "our school is the first institution that has been made self-sustaining by the sale of food used in the class instruction. We spend on an average a little over £20 a month on the food bought at the lowest wholesale prices. This and the waste and cost of service are all met by the proceeds from our lunches served daily to the teachers, scholars and chance visitors. These lunches are in the nature of a by-product."

The girls in the school also cater for women's clubs, teachers' gatherings, and other similar organisations, the work being done chiefly outside of school hours. The pupils make the menus, buy, prepare, and serve the food. The profits from this activity are divided between the school loan fund and the library fund.

The course in domestic science includes general instruction in artistic harmonising of colours. The girls are taught how best to select the furniture of a house on a given sum, so that the wallpapers, draperies, carpets, rugs, and furniture all shall harmonise and be appropriate for their use and place. The pupils occasionally go to leading furniture and house furnishing establishments, and with a given sum of money in mind select complete house furnishings. Appreciating the value of tangible object-lessons, Mr. Weaver has taken a part of a large dwelling-house that stands on the rear of the lot bought for the school, and has had it fitted up as a small but complete home, suitable for two persons where the income is from £3 to £3 10s. a week.

In the department of specialised industry, in addition to dressmaking and millinery, a new course in designing is now being developed. Dressmaking in all its branches is here taught in so practical and comprehensive a way as to afford a splendid opportunity for ambitious young women to equip themselves for profitable employment. During the last year of this course the girls spend at least two weeks in dressmaking establishments and families, so as to gain experience. Those employing them are expected to criticise the work and report on its merit to the school, and this is credited as part of the training. The girls receive one dollar a day for the work, and this money they retain.

"We also," said Mr. Weaver, "take in custom order work from the outside, and this gives our girls additional valuable practical experience. The profits from this work go to our loan fund."

A record of all graduates is kept, and as far as possible the school authorities remain in touch with them for several years.

In this school we have a fine typical illustration of the new forward movement in practical democratic education, which promises to improve the common-school system, broadening the culture, strengthening the moral fibre, and raising the standard of efficiency among the people.



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ALBERT ST., EAST MELBOURNE.

Opposite the Fitzroy Gardens.

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Comprehensive Curriculum, with a large number of Optional Courses.

Preparation for all University Entrance Examinations.

ART, MUSIC, GYMNASTICS.

Under the direction of recognised experts.

Residential Accommodation for about 70 Scholars.

Term Days 1914: Feb. 10th, June 2nd, Sept. 15th.

Illustrated Prospectus on Application.

WM. GRAY, M.A., B.Sc., PRINCIPAL.

SCOTCH COLLEGE, MELBOURNE.

THE OLDEST PUBLIC SCHOOL
IN VICTORIA.

TERM DAYS are: 2nd Tuesday in Feb., 1st Tuesday in June, 2nd Tuesday in September.

Parents intending to send their boys into residence should make early application for places.

Prospectus on Application.

W. S. LITTLEJOHN, M.A., Principal.



ALDWORTH

Girls' Grammar School,

EAST MALVERN.

Principals: The Misses Craig.

The school is situated in Finch Street, five minutes' walk from the Caulfield Railway Station, and ten minutes' walk from the Wattle tree Road Tram.

The grounds of the School afford ample room for sports of various kinds, and include a tennis court and basket-ball ground.

New buildings have recently been erected, providing additional accommodation for boarders.

Prospectus on Application at

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INSPECTOR-GENERAL GEORGE E. EMERY.

Summary of Annual Report.

For Year ended 30th June, 1914.

SAVINGS BANK DEPARTMENT.

Number of Branches under Managers, 123 (increase, 8).

Number of Agencies, 322 (increase, 4).

Total Amount at Credit of Depositors (including £114,870 redeemable stock) £23,381,696

Increase for the Year 1,815,774

Total Number of Depositors' Accounts, 705,029 (increase for the year, 30,487).

Interest Credited to Depositors for the Year at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on first £100,

and 3 per cent. on excess up to £350 for each depositor 674,741

Net Profit for the Year (after writing £14,040 off Bank Premises) 26,616

Reserve Fund 500,000

Funds are Invested as follow:

Cash and Bank Deposit Receipts 4,281,646

Mortgage Securities and Bank Premises 2,622,284

Government Stock, Debentures and Bonds, Municipal, Board of Works, and

Savings Bank Debentures 17,033,406

Total Funds £23,937,336

CREDIT FONCIER DEPARTMENT.

This Department issues debentures, and, with the proceeds, makes advances on the security of farms, houses and shops.

The total amount of advances during the year was as follows:—

On Farm Securities £282,105

On Houses and Shops 520,950

The total number and amount of loans current at 30th June were as follows:—

3513 Farm Securities for £1,676,432

5788 House and Shop Securities for 1,577,967

Total number 9301

Total amount £3,254,399

The repayments which fell due during the year numbered 28,761, for amounts as follow:

Interest £135,697

Sinking Fund 78,482

Arrears amount only to— £180 19 6 for interest; and

78 10 6 for sinking fund.

Net Profit for the Year on the Business of the Credit Foncier Department £9,099

Reserve Fund of Credit Foncier Department £102,309

GEO. E. EMERY,

Inspector-General.

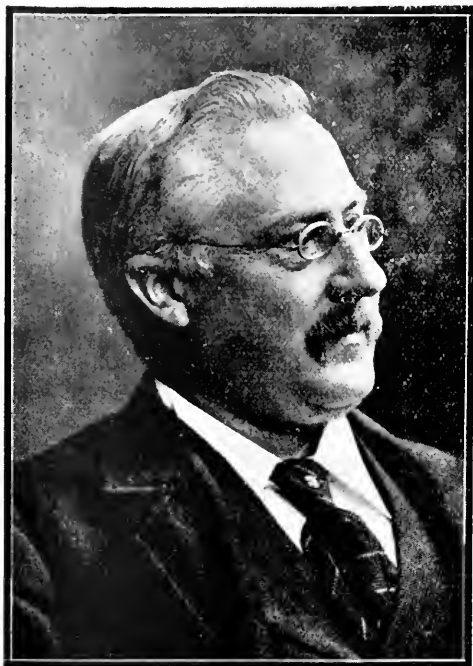
HEAD OFFICE, ELIZABETH STREET,

Melbourne, 23rd September, 1914.

FINANCIAL AND BUSINESS QUARTER.

CONDUCTED BY ALEX. JOBSON, A.I.A.

THE SAVINGS BANK OF VICTORIA.



SIR GEORGE TURNER.

The recent financial crisis has again demonstrated the immense confidence the public has in the Savings Bank. But few depositors withdrew their money, and it is safe to say that almost all who did, put it back again within a few days. During the brief crisis many new accounts were opened, chiefly by long-headed business men, who realised that whatever happened their money would be safe in this State-supported bank. The prosperity of the Savings Bank really dates from the time of the smash which followed the boom of 1888. In those terrible days arrangements were made by the Commissioners with the Government of Victoria, by which the State undertook to stand behind the institution. At that time the late Captain Archibald Currie was chairman, one of the shrewdest business men in Victoria.

He held the post until last year, when failing health caused him to resign. He died last month, and with his passing Victoria lost one of her pioneers, a man who by his unaided efforts had created a great shipping business, and had a large share in moulding and developing the trade of the State. As his colleagues on the Commission he had hard-headed business men, his successor as chairman being Sir George Turner, for several years Premier of Victoria, and later Treasurer in the Federal Government.

* * *

The Savings Bank has been peculiarly fortunate in its Commissioners, and also in its Inspector-General, Mr. Geo. Emery. Under his direction the routine working of the bank has become so excellent that it has been taken as a model by all the other States, Commissioners of the Savings Banks in Tasmania, South Australia, and New South Wales having gone so far as to borrow a high official from the Victorian Bank to re-organise their institutions.

* * *

The arrival of the Commonwealth Savings Bank, as a competitor, compelled the States Savings Banks throughout Australia to open many new branches, as they were unable longer to use the post offices, which became the home of the new bank. Although this naturally entailed considerable expense, it resulted in a large increase of subscribers.

* * *

The competition of the Commonwealth Bank induced the Savings Banks in all the States to introduce a reciprocal arrangement, which allows depositors to operate their accounts all over the Commonwealth. This privilege is being increasingly taken advantage of. Somewhat similar arrangements are

made with the British Savings Bank and with that in New Zealand. The Commissioners have followed the example of Mr. Herbert Samuel, who when Postmaster-General at home, introduced safety money boxes into which odd coins can be dropped, to be later deposited in the bank. No fewer than 30,000 of these were issued last year. This brings the total for the five years since the scheme was started to 169,631. The bank is not run to make a profit, but for the benefit of the people. Each year £50,000 goes to the Reserve Fund, which now totals £500,000. The profit for this year was £40,656 6s. 8d. Last year, £38,292 8s. 8d. was brought forward, so the total amount available after interest and all expenses had been paid was £78,948 15s. 4d.; £14,908 15s. 4d. of this was carried forward to next year, £14,040 was written off bank premises and £50,000 was transferred to the Reserve Fund.

During the year 30,487 new accounts were opened, bringing the total number to 705,029. The total amount at the credit of depositors was £23,381,690, an increase of £1,815,774 during the year. The interest credited to depositors for the year at $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the first £100, and 3 per cent. on excess up to the limit (£350) allowed each depositor, amounted to £674,741. The funds of the bank must all be invested in Victoria, some 7-10ths being in Victorian Government Stock, Debentures and Stock, and Municipal Debentures. That is to say, much of the money raised locally by the Treasurer is obtained from the Savings Bank.

Several millions are deposited with private banks in Victoria, and these

amounts could be promptly withdrawn if required. The Board of Works and some of the municipalities have also had money from the Savings Bank, which holds their stock.

The Credit Foncier is a distinct department of the Savings Bank. It was created originally for the purpose of advancing money to farmers--on good security thus relieving them of all legal charges incidental to the raising of money on mortgage in the ordinary way. The popularity of this move caused the Commissioners to increase the scope of the department to include town dwellers as well. The latter branch has now become the larger, and last year £520,950 was advanced upon house and shop properties, and £282,105 on farm securities.

The balance of loans on June 30th last was £1,676,432 os. 5d. on farms, and £1,577,967 14s. 5d. on houses, etc. The average amount advanced per week during the year was £16,000. The total profit for the year was £9099 19s. 1d. The entrance of the Savings Bank into the business of advancing money in this way forced the banks to fix their rate of interest on loans at the same figure, $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. for some years, and latterly 5 per cent. Prior to that much higher rates on the average had been charged. The value of a Savings Bank is now recognised the world over. It fosters habits of thrift in the people, and thus raises the standard of living. The Victorian institution is one of the most efficient in the world, and has led the way in giving every assistance to its depositors. In times of stress and turmoil its value is triumphantly demonstrated.

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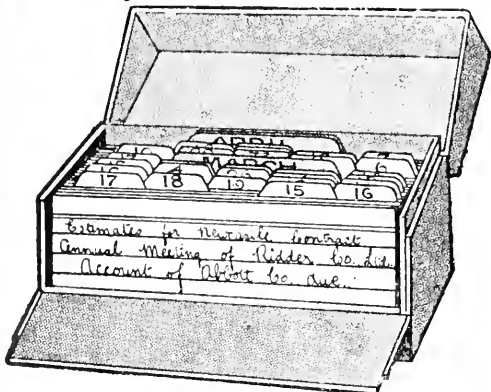
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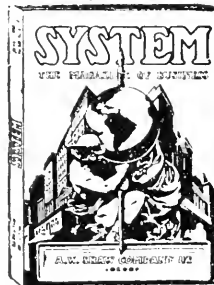


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usual 14 per cent. per annum rate of dividend to be paid for the half-year on the augmented capital. This during the year had been increased by the issue of 20,000 new £25 shares at £45, a premium of £20 each.

Had the directors thought it necessary to add £50,000, out of profit, to the reserve as in February, 1913, instead of £30,000, as was done this time, it is not improbable that the resources of the profits might have permitted it. But there was no special need to transfer more than £30,000. The new share issue brought in £400,000 in premiums, and as this sum was promptly added to the reserve fund, it was quite a matter of small importance as to whether the reserve addition made out of profit was £50,000 or £30,000.

The result of this new share issue has been to strengthen the depositors' security very considerably. The bank now owes over £25,430,000 (£24,080,000 in February, 1913) to the public, against which it has more than £29,440,000 in assets. That is, over £115 15s. for every £100 of liability. This accession in strength is, of course, very welcome, for it makes the bank's security even better than it was a year before, when the assets proportion was £112 13s.

The depositors are also in a good position as regards the composition of the assets, which secure their interests. In February, 1913, the proportion the liquid assets bore to the liabilities was 43.5 per cent. Whereas in February last it was over 50 per cent. This was due in the main to the inability of the bank to find first-class security for advances to absorb the new capital (with premiums) of £900,000, the growth of over £1,350,000 in the liabilities on the current profits. As the advances, now £16,300,000, only took £80,000 of all this money, the liquid assets necessarily increased by nearly £2,280,000 to

£12,770,000, a very comfortable amount to hold, indeed.

The question of reducing the denomination of the bank's shares at present £75 paid to £25, was raised at the shareholders' meeting in January, 1914. The directors have since considered the matter, and the chairman told the members at the recent meeting that "the splitting of the shares would be of benefit to the bank, chiefly from the fact that it would no doubt increase the number of our shareholders, and so add to the number of those who might in various ways forward its interests. It will be necessary to call a special meeting of shareholders, when the detailed proposals of the board will be put before them and if these were approved the meeting would be called upon to also approve certain alterations in the articles of association, rendered necessary by the change in the denomination of the shares." The meeting in question will, it is said, be held some time in January next. From the point of view of the small investor the proposal is attractive. The reduction in the denomination of the shares will, no doubt, increase the number of shareholders. At the same time it may make the task of collecting the reserve liability, if it ever became necessary, rather more difficult than now when most of the shareholders are of the wealthy class and presumably well able to meet it.

At the time of writing the buying quotation of the shares on the market is £50 10s. This though much below that of £59 six months ago, is yet rather better than the price of £49 5s. current at the beginning of October. To an investor with faith in the bank's future this is quite an attractive price, for the yield is nearly 7 per cent. Even should the dividend be reduced to 10 per cent., which seems rather unlikely, the return is still little under 5 per cent. Further, the bank's assets exceed its liabilities by over £50 per share, and its financial position generally is certainly strong.



THE OVER SEAS CLUB.



The Over Seas branches everywhere are working hard in aid of Patriotic Funds, Red Cross Society and other Imperial matters. Special concerts have been given, entertainments arranged, the entire proceeds of which have been sent to one or other of the funds. Specially notable is the effort of the Charters Towers Branch, which raised no less than £125 at a single concert, and handed the entire amount over to the local Patriotic Fund. In Melbourne the Club has started a rifle club, which has already many members. The Rangitikei Branch made a levy of 2/6 a member, and has already given a substantial sum to local funds. Many Over Seas men are going to England with our forces, amongst others Lieut.-Colonel Cuppidge, President of the Gympie Branch. A most excellent idea has found practical expression in the Toowoomba Branch. A large number of the members have undertaken to subscribe 1/- each per week during the continuance of the war. The money thus obtained is placed at the disposal of the Executive, and will probably be held for the relief, if need be, of those of its members who have volunteered for the front. The question of the Headquarters' levy of 6d. per member, is greatly exercising many of the branches. The payment of this small sum is by no means a

burden on individual members, but the collection of it is a heavy tax upon the secretaries and treasurers. If members but realised the imperative need for adequate headquarters in London, there would be no further hesitation about the levy. Those members who are going home with the forces will be the first to experience the benefit of the organisation at home. It is only by the help of the branches all over the world that Headquarters can be kept going. Many of the branches have already paid the levy, but others, especially the larger ones, consider its collection too difficult, and are suggesting a different method of contribution. The Queensland Council, for instance, proposes 10/6 for every 50 or portion of 50 financial members, with a minimum of £1/1/- for branches with a membership of 100 or less; this is practically a 6d. levy, but when the numbers exceed 150, is rather less than 3d. per head.

The present time of trial and Imperial anxiety naturally draws together all the members of a patriotic organisation like the Over Seas, and the membership of the club should be largely augmented. Everyone wants to do something to help, the Over Seas gives excellent opportunities for service.

BRANCH REPORTS.

Queensland.—The annual meeting of branch delegates and members of the Queensland Council of the Over Seas Club was held at the club rooms of the Brisbane Branch. Mr. Sydney Austen, the energetic Secretary of the Toowoomba Branch, who has acted as Hon. Secretary to the Queensland Council, since its creation, explained that he could no longer fill that office. As the success of the club in Queensland is largely due to his unsparing energy, the Council were much distressed at his resignation, which they accepted with great regret. It is hoped that the Brisbane Branch will be able to provide someone to take his place. Considerable difficulty has been experienced in collecting the small levy of 3d. per member which the branches agreed to pay when they federated last year. When this has been paid, the finances of the Council will be in a satisfactory condition. The reports given of the activities of the different branches was most satisfactory. The following were unanimously elected officers for 1914-1915:—Patron, the Hon. Sir Arthur Morgan, Lieut.-Governor of Queensland; President, Mr. H. J. Diddams, C.M.G.; Vice-Presidents, Hon. E. H. T. Plant, M.L.C., and Dr. Aeneas McDonnell; Executive, Dr. H. C. C. Shaw (Brisbane), Messrs. J. H. Stanley (Toowoomba), R. Wynn-Williams, M.L.A. (Charters Towers), Vivian H. Tozer (Gympie), Louis H. Maynard (Bundaberg), and A. J. Neal (Watawa); Hon. Treasurer, Mr. W. H. Giddy; Hon. Secretary, to be appointed.

Charters Towers.—The Hon. Secretary, Mr. C. Mitford, sends the programme of the splendid patriotic concert held on August 18th. The Stadium was packed with over 1500 people, and the receipts amounted to no less than £125, which was duly handed over to the local Patriotic Fund.

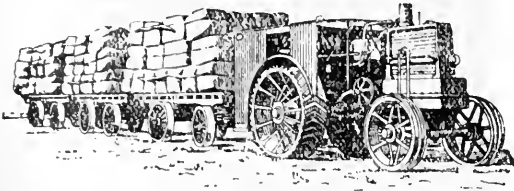
Gympie.—The fourth anniversary of the founding of the club was celebrated by a patriotic demonstration in the Queen's Park. The gathering was the most successful ever held in the town. The Rev. A. T. Craswell gave a most eloquent address, in which he said that the fact had been brought home to them that when England was at war the Empire was at war. Their heritage was a national one, but they must remember they only had a life interest in it, and it must be handed on to their descendants, not only intact, but improved and more glorious than they had received it. Other speakers were the Vice-President (Mr. W. Stephenson) — the President has gone to the front, Mr. G. H. Mackay (M.L.A.), and Mr. V. H. Tozer. The Boy Scouts gave an ambulance display, and the St. Peter's Gordon Boys' Club gave a demonstration of their gymnastic skill. A combined band rendered national airs during the afternoon, and refreshments were distributed by an energetic band of helpers. Mr. Fostick again showed his organising ability being greatly helped by a strong committee. Mr. Stephenson not only ably represented the absent President, but rendered yeoman service in organising the function.

The proceeds, about £17, go to the local Patriotic Fund. The branch has now 333 members.

Rangitikei, N.Z.—Dr. G. M. Warren, the Hon. Secretary, reports a most successful demonstration at Marton, on August 28th. A torchlight procession included the Rotoria Maori Choir (in native costume), the massed choirs of the various churches, territorials, senior and junior cadets, the Over Seas members, and the fire brigade. Mr. W. C.

Kensington, I.S.O., President of the branch, gave a stirring address to crowded audience in the Town Hall. The Maori Choir rendered several patriotic songs. The 2/6 levy has already raised £12 for the Patriotic Fund.

Wollongong, N.S.W.—G. M. Martell, Hon. Secretary, reports that the members of the Wollongong Branch are sending packages of warm clothing for the destitute Belgians, and also for the London poor to the Sydney depot. This is an example that might well be copied by other branches.



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The Over Seas' Club is strictly non-party, non-sectarian, and recognises no distinction of class. Its members reside in all parts of the world *outside* the United Kingdom. Membership is open to any British subject, British-born or naturalised.

Information concerning the Over Seas Club can be obtained from the following:—

Australia: Victoria.—Rev. Tregarthen, Empire Arcade, Flinders-street, Melbourne.

Queensland.—Sidney Austen (Hon. State Secretary), Toowoomba.

South Australia.—A. E. Davey, Curriestreet, Adelaide.

Tasmania.—H. T. Gould, J.P., 94 Elizabeth-street, Hobart.

New Zealand.—J. K. Macfie (Hon. Dominion Secretary), 79 Castle-street, Dunedin.

Fiji.—A. J. Armstrong, Native Office, Suva, Fiji.

Canada; Ontario.—Miss O. I. Ward, The Rochdale, 320 Cooper-street, Ottawa.

Manitoba.—R. J. McOnie, 1003 McArthur Building, Winnipeg, Man.

Saskatchewan.—E. A. Matthews, P.O. Box 1629, Saskatoon.

Alberta.—E. Livesay, 832 Ottawa-avenue, Edmonton.

British Columbia.—W. Blackmore, "The Week," Victoria.

Nova Scotia.—H. Howe, P.O. Box 370, Halifax.

South Africa: Natal.—W. A. Coates, 230 Church-street, Pietermaritzburg.

Transvaal.—W. Crofton Forbes, Director of Prisons Office, Pretoria.

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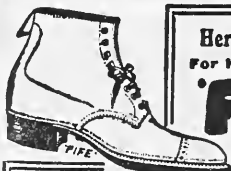
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The prevailing modes are illustrated in our Summer Fashion Portfolio. Write for a copy, post free on request.



No. 9201—BLACK MERVEILLEUX SILK SHIRT BLOUSE, finely pin tucked, trimmed with wide Silk Insertion, high Collar, fastens front 10/6

No. 99—SMARTLY CUT IVORY JAPANESE SILK BLOUSE, loose Magyar effect, turned-back low Collar, finished Navy spotted Foulard, Sailor knot, fastens front, long Sleeves, with turned-back Cuff 12/11

No. 4201—SMART BLOUSE, of Cream Delaine, trimmed Silk Embroidery, fastens at front, scalloped edge, high Collar 6/11

No. 648—WHITE COTTON CREPE BLOUSE, with Vest effect at front, the turned-down Collar, also pipings and Buttons in coloured contrast, fastens at back, three-quarter Sleeves 4/6

No. 767—WHITE COTTON CREPE SAILOR BLOUSE, handkerchief Pocket, fastens front 3/11

Out Sizes, 42 to 44 inch Bust, 1/- extra, in all Numbers. Postage must be added to the Prices quoted.

No. 4851—DAINTY IVORY JAPANESE SILK BLOUSE, finely tucked, Yoke and high Collar of Valenciennes Insertion, fasten back 6/6

No. 8271—EFFECTIVE BLOUSE OF IVORY JAPANESE SILK, trimmed Valenciennes Insertion and coloured Embossed Embroidery, high Collar, fastens at back 5/11

No. 351—DAINTILY TRIMMED MUSLIN BLOUSE, Embroidered front, finely pin tucked long Sleeves into Cuff, fastens at back 7/11

No. 84/153—WHITE MUSLIN BLOUSE, with Embroidered scalloped front, and Cuffs, finely tucked, front fastenings 4/6

No. 271—COTTON CREPE BLOUSE, in Sky, Helio., Grey grounds, with White stripes, and White ground with Tan, Navy, Black and Helio. stripes, turned-down American Collar, finished small pearl Buttons, fastens front, yoke at back 4/11

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